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**DETERMINANTS OF DESTINATION LOYALTY OF INTERNATIONAL  
TOURISTS AT CULTURAL HERITAGE SITES IN MALAYSIA**

By

**LISA TUNG PEI PEI**



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**Universiti Utara Malaysia**

Thesis Submitted to

Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business

Universiti Utara Malaysia,

In Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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**Kolej Perniagaan**  
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(Programme of Study)

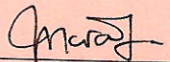
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## ABSTRACT

Cultural heritage tourism is one of the contributors to the tourism industry because it can assist in improving tourist arrivals. Cultural heritage tourism refers to tourists visiting cultural heritage sites and it is important to focus on the loyalty of tourists to these sites for sustainable growth. Destination loyalty has been conceptualized in many different ways and the most common are based on revisit intention and recommendations to others. This study explored destination loyalty as behavioural, attitudinal and experiential dimensions, and examined the determinants of destination loyalty of international tourists at cultural heritage sites. This study also explored the mediating effect of satisfaction and the moderating effect of tourist characteristics. A two-stage area sampling that consisted of a cluster and systematic sampling approaches were adopted for this study. From the 500 international tourists at Penang and Melaka, Malaysia, that were approached, 483 responses were obtained which yielded a response rate of 96.6%. SmartPLS 3.27 was used for the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) and analysis. The results of this study indicated that destination image, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions had a significant positive influence on destination loyalty, and satisfaction was found to exert a mediating effect on structural relationships. However, tourist characteristics did not have a moderating effect on satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship. This study provides information on the determinants of destination loyalty and has theoretical, methodological, and practical implications. This study extends the cultural heritage tourism literature by incorporating destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and satisfaction in a destination loyalty framework. Furthermore, this study provides useful information for destination managers to devise marketing plans and activities relevant to developing the loyalty of tourists.

**Keywords:** destination loyalty, satisfaction, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions.



## ABSTRAK

Pelancongan warisan kebudayaan merupakan salah satu penyumbang kepada industri pelancongan kerana dapat membantu dalam meningkatkan kedatangan pelancong. Pelancongan warisan kebudayaan merujuk kepada pelancong yang melawat tapak warisan budaya dan hal ini penting untuk memberi tumpuan kepada kesetiaan pelancong ke tempat-tempat ini untuk pertumbuhan yang mampan. Kesetiaan destinasi telah dikonsepkan dalam pelbagai cara dan kebiasaannya berdasarkan niat untuk melawati semula dan pengesyoran kepada orang lain. Kajian ini meneroka kesetiaan destinasi sebagai dimensi tingkah laku, sikap dan pengalaman, dan meneliti penentu kesetiaan destinasi pelancong antarabangsa ke tapak warisan kebudayaan. Tambahan pula, kajian ini meneroka kesan perantaraan kepuasan dan kesan penyederhanaan ciri-ciri pelancong. Pensampelan kawasan dua peringkat yang terdiri daripada kaedah pensampelan kelompok dan sistematik telah digunakan dalam kajian ini. Daripada 500 pelancong antarabangsa di Pulau Pinang dan Melaka yang didekati, sebanyak 483 maklum balas diperoleh dan menghasilkan kadar maklum balas sebanyak 96.6%. SmartPLS 3.27 telah digunakan untuk pemodelan dan analisis persamaan berstruktur kuasa dua terkecil separa (PLS-SEM). Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa imej destinasi, tanggapan keaslian, interaksi pelancong dan emosi pelancong mempunyai pengaruh positif dan signifikan terhadap kesetiaan destinasi. Di samping itu, kepuasan didapati memberikan kesan pengantaraan terhadap hubungan-hubungan struktur. Walaupun bagaimanapun, ciri-ciri pelancong tidak mempunyai kesan penyederhanaan terhadap hubungan kepuasan dan kesetiaan destinasi. Kajian ini memberikan maklumat mengenai penentu kesetiaan destinasi dan mempunyai implikasi dari segi teoretikal, metodologi, dan praktikal. Kajian ini memperluaskan rujukan kajian pelancongan warisan kebudayaan dengan menggabungkan imej destinasi, pengetahuan destinasi, tanggapan keaslian, interaksi pelancong, emosi pelancong dan kepuasan dalam rangka kerja kesetiaan destinasi. Tambahan pula, kajian ini memberikan maklumat yang berguna kepada pengurus-pengurus destinasi untuk merancang pelan pemasaran dan aktiviti yang relevan untuk membangunkan kesetiaan para pelancong.

**Kata kunci:** kesetiaan destinasi, kepuasan, tanggapan keaslian, interaksi pelancong, emosi pelancong.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Being on this PhD journey was extremely challenging and I would not have been able to complete it without the support from those around me. First of all, I would like to extend my most sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Dr. Nor Azila Mohd Noor for her patience and guidance all these years. She has provided valuable comments and words of support throughout the preparation of my thesis, despite the long duration that I took to complete my PhD.

I am also grateful to my superiors Professor Dr. Neethiahnathan Ari Ragavan and Dr. Joaquim Dias Soeiro as well as my former superior, Associate Professor Dr. Toney K. Thomas for their immense support in providing time off for me to prepare the write up of my thesis and sharing their personal experience and advice as well as encouragement to complete my PhD. My appreciation also goes to my colleague and friend, Sharon Linang for her tremendous moral support and motivation during the times when I was struggling and about to give up on my PhD. I would also like to thank Casey, Jesse, Nadia, Khairiah and Wai Yee for assisting with work matters whenever I was away from work to prepare my thesis.

Last but not least, I would like to extend my utmost gratitude to my husband, Alex Sow and my daughter, Alicia Sow for their patience and support throughout my PhD journey. I would also like to appreciate my mother, Vicky Kok for providing her unconditional support and inspiration for me to complete my thesis. Special thanks also goes to my late father, Sidney Tung and my sister, Vivian Tung for their moral support all these years. Not to forget my in laws, Trinny Choo and Victor Sow for their assistance at home throughout my PhD journey.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1. AVE – Average Variance Extracted
2. CMV – Common Method Variance
3. DES – Destination Emotion Scale
4. ETP – Economic Transformation Programme
5. HCM – Hierarchical Component Models
6. HOC - Higher Order Components
7. HTMT– Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations
8. MGA – Multigroup Analysis
9. NKEAs – National Key Economic Areas
10. OLS – Ordinary Least Squares
11. PLS-SEM – Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling
12.  $RMS_{\eta^2}$  – Root Mean Square Residual Covariance
13. SEM– Structural Equation Modelling
14. SET– Social Exchange Theory
15. SRMR – Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
16. TDLT – Tourism Destination Loyalty Theory
17. TRA–Theory of Reasoned Action
18. UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
19. UNWTO – United Nations World Tourism Organization
20. VIF – Variance Inflation Factor
21. WHS – World Heritage Sites

Universiti Utara Malaysia

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides an overview of the background of study, the research questions and objectives, the problem statement, scope and limitations of the study, as well as the definition of key terms used. Lastly, the chapter provides an outline of the organization of this thesis.

#### **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

Many top destinations around the world such as Macau and the Maldives rely on tourism as a major contributing sector to their country's economy because of the many benefits it brings. Malaysia is yet another one of these countries that focuses on tourism as a source of income to the nation's economy. As one of the main contributing sectors, tourism has been identified as one of the National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) in Malaysia's Economic Transformation Programme (ETP). The total tourist arrivals in Malaysia has grown annually from 2007 to a total of 27.44 million tourists in 2014 (as indicated in Table 1.1) but the arrivals declined in 2015 and again in 2017 and 2018 with a total of 25.93 million tourists in 2018 (Tourism Malaysia, 2019). The reason for the high tourist arrivals in 2014 is attributed to the "Visit Malaysia Year" campaign while the decline in 2015 may have been due to a particularly bad haze that developed over parts of the country at particular times of that year (Tourism Malaysia, 2018a). In addition, there was the assassination of North



Korean leader Kim Jong-nam (North Korean leader's half-brother poisoned to death before flight, 2017) in Malaysia that may have led to the decrease in tourist arrivals in 2017.

Table 1.1

*Tourist Arrivals and Percentage of Change from 2007–2018*

Year	Arrivals (Million)	% Change
2018	25.83	-0.46
2017	25.95	-3.02
2016	26.76	4.03
2015	25.72	-6.25
2014	27.44	6.70
2013	25.72	2.73
2012	25.03	1.29
2011	24.71	0.56
2010	24.58	3.94
2009	23.65	7.23
2008	22.05	5.15
2007	20.97	19.52

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2019)

Tourism Malaysia is an agency under the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture Malaysia and one of its objectives is to promote Malaysia as an outstanding destination and to showcase its unique wonders, attractions and cultures (Tourism Malaysia, n.d.a). Therefore, Tourism Malaysia's aim is to attain high tourist arrivals and tourism receipts and to maintain this volume now and in the future. Destination managers will need to be more proactive in redefining their marketing strategies to increase tourist loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) with growing competition from other destinations. Sustainability of visitor numbers will be difficult, and this is especially true when neighbouring countries such as Thailand and Indonesia recorded higher percentages of growth (UNWTO Tourism Barometer, 2015) than Malaysia.

Except for 2015, 2017 and 2018, the number of tourist arrivals to the country has generally grown, as illustrated in Table 1.1. However, the percentage of growth is very small with 2011 recording a growth of only 0.6% when previously in 2010, there was a growth of 3.9%. On the other hand, in 2014, the growth of tourist arrivals went up to 6.7% due to the “Visit Malaysia Year 2014” campaign. The increase in the number of tourist arrivals in 2014 is mainly due to the promotional efforts by Tourism Malaysia. Nonetheless, promotion is only effective in influencing intention to visit but not intention to revisit (Mohamed, 2007). Therefore, with this in mind, this study was conducted to identify the factors that can influence the loyalty of tourists in revisiting cultural heritage sites and in recommending them to others.

Being a multi-cultural country, Malaysia is rich in its diversity of attractions that can be offered to tourists. With the long history of Malaysia, there are many attraction sites that showcase the different cultural and heritage aspects of the country. Visits to these cultural heritage sites contribute to the cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia. Cultural heritage tourism is one of the common forms of tourism when tourists travel to a particular destination and is currently one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry (Chen & Chen, 2010; Remoaldo, Vareiro, Ribeiro, & Santos, 2014). Cultural heritage tourism or heritage tourism may simply refer to tourists visiting cultural heritage sites or monuments where tourists can gain knowledge of the historical development of a destination or country (Sulaiman, Yahaya & Khalid, 2012). Based on the National Heritage Act 2005, heritage can be divided into tangible heritage and intangible heritage. Tangible heritage refers to the buildings, monuments and historical areas whereas intangible heritage relates to the people, language, dances, songs and even games that reflects the Malaysian community of the past.



Cultural and heritage tourism was an item in the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006 – 2010) where monuments and historical sites were upgraded (Malaysia, 2006). The Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011 – 2015) as well had key strategies to increase the number of tourist arrivals through the creation of focused tourism clusters that leveraged on United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) World Heritage Sites (WHS) (Malaysia, 2010). The Ministry of Tourism and Culture has also indicated that emphasis should be given to cultural heritage sites as these resources can be integrated into mainstream tourism for sustainable growth (Hon, 2013). With these agendas in mind, it is imperative for the country to increase tourist arrivals and more importantly to maintain repeating tourists, especially to cultural heritage sites. In 2012, the ministry recorded a total of 14.5 million tourists who have visited heritage sites (Hon, 2013). This accounted for more than 50% of the total tourist arrivals in Malaysia, making this segment a huge contributor to the tourism industry in Malaysia. However, based on the Malaysia Tourist Profile 2017/2016, only 14% of tourists were engaged in visiting historical places in 2016 (Tourism Malaysia, n.d.b) while in 2017, only 33.9% of tourists were engaged in visiting historical places (Tourism Malaysia, n.d.c). While there was an increase, the level has not returned to the 2012 figure.

Malaysia has over 179 heritage sites (Heritage List - Site: Buildings, n.d.) but only five have been recognized by UNESCO as WHS whereas Indonesia has eight sites listed by UNESCO. The five UNESCO WHS in Malaysia are Taman Negara Mulu, Taman Negara Kinabalu, Tapak Arkeologi Lembah Lenggong, Melaka and Georgetown. Being a country that is rich in cultural diversity, Malaysia has much to offer but the image of the country as a cultural heritage destination is not as well-

known as other images such as shopping and incentives (Malaysia Tourist Profile, 2013). According to Mintel (2011), Malaysia's image is the main issue within the tourism industry and destination image positively influences satisfaction and loyalty (Mohamad, Abd Ghani, Mamat, & Mamat, 2014). If there is positive image of the cultural heritage sites in Malaysia, it can contribute to destination loyalty behaviour and this may increase its competitiveness in the region. Therefore, it is vital to have a better understanding of what motivates destination loyalty of tourists to cultural heritage sites in order to devise better destination management and marketing strategies. Kastenholz et al. (2013) highlighted in their article that having repeat visitors is a strategy to push for a more reliable revenue stream, and a more stable and foreseeable tourism flow. It also reduces marketing costs. In addition, many cities with unique cultural heritage resources have started to focus on cultural heritage tourism (Wan & Cheng, 2011). Cultural heritage tourism contributes to economic development strategy, revitalize communities and inspire recognition and development in the creative economy of a destination (Hargrove, 2017). Therefore, it is important to research the determinants of destination loyalty at cultural heritage sites in Malaysia for continuous sustainable growth.

As stated earlier, Malaysia has five sites that are listed on UNESCO's WHS. Of the five sites; Melaka and Georgetown, Penang are the two sites that define the image of a cultural heritage destination. These two sites have the heritage aspects of architectural buildings, shop houses and local culture that tell the stories of the past and present. However, the performance of these two sites has not been encouraging in terms of tourist arrivals.



Table 1.2  
*Tourist Arrivals in Penang and Melaka from 2005 – 2018 based on Hotel Guests*

Year	Melaka		Penang	
	Arrivals	% Change	Arrivals	% Change
2018	4,943,906	3.20	6,656,481	4.30
2017	4,790,780	3.13	6,381,751	0.04
2016	4,645,164	N/A	6,379,185	N/A
2015	N/A	N/A	N/A	/A
2014	4,432,963	7.29	6,847,569	45.63
2013	4,131,765	5.76	4,702,100	-22.83
2012	3,906,701	0.09	6,093,189	1.22
2011	3,903,048	0.36	6,019,954	0.49
2010	3,888,993	3.44	5,990,864	0.51
2009	3,759,515	-13.60	5,960,329	-5.50
2008	4,351,397	32.77	6,307,468	21.61
2007	3,277,406	15.25	5,186,611	10.62
2006	2,843,637	4.84	4,688,504	7.73
2005	2,426,974	11.80	4,105,828	6.0

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2019)

After the inscription of Melaka and Georgetown, Penang as Historic Cities of The Straits of Malacca in July 2008, the tourist arrivals in 2008 for both states went up tremendously as can be seen in Table 1.2. However, in 2009, the arrivals went down and since then the tourist arrivals in both states have fluctuated. Penang had a decrease of 22.83% in tourist arrivals in 2013 and while Melaka's arrivals went up by 5.76 % in 2013. This is a cause for concern because the title of UNESCO WHS should be influencing the motivation of tourists to revisit the destination (Cleere, 2006) and have an impact on tourist flows (Ramires, Brandao, & Sousa, 2018). But in the case of Melaka and Georgetown, Penang, UNESCO WHS listing did not assist the two states in sustaining visitor numbers.

### 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The tourism industry is getting very competitive (Wee, Tan, Tan, Teo & Woo, 2012) and within South East Asia itself, Malaysia faces fierce competition from destinations like Cambodia, Myanmar and Indonesia as the growth rate of tourist arrivals to these countries is higher (UNWTO, 2015). This can become a threat to Malaysia. Moreover, the growth rate of tourist arrivals in Malaysia is not stable and is declining (Mohamad et al., 2014) which indicates that other countries have become more attractive as destinations. With the increasing competition, tourists have many destinations to choose from (Murdy & Pike, 2012) and this makes destinations easily substitutable (Pike, 2007). Furthermore, the level of competition is increasing within the sphere of cultural heritage tourism as there are new destinations emerging and more heritage sites are being listed by UNESCO. Therefore, destination managers need to have strategic plans to sustain the growth within the industry. In order to develop these strategic plans, it is important to firstly understand what can actually bring tourists back to a destination and to recommend it to others as repeat visits can increase profitability and ensure sustainable development (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kastenholz, Eusebio, & Carneiro, 2013).

While tourist arrivals in Malaysia are generally on an increasing trend, it does not necessarily mean an increased in revisits by tourists as the tourist arrivals also take into account first time visitors. In addition, cultural heritage sites in Malaysia mainly record the total number of tourists but do not keep track of repeat visitors. Because of this, there is limited empirical support to show whether the tourists to the sites are first time or repeat visitors. Hence, there is a need to research the loyalty of tourists to cultural heritage sites for a better understanding of the factors that can influence

tourists to revisit cultural heritage sites and to recommend them to others. This research idea is supported by Mr. Engkamat Anak Lading, the site manager of Taman Negara Mulu, a world heritage site in Sarawak, who stated that it would be very beneficial to have information on factors influencing tourists to revisit, as it will assist in the planning of marketing and site development.

Based on the figures in Table 1.2, tourist arrivals to Melaka and Penang echo visitor numbers to Malaysia in that the figures fluctuate and do not show a steady incremental increase. This is not sustainable because a destination cannot depend on first time tourists only over time. In order to maintain repeat tourists, it is important to identify what factors are influencing tourists to repeat their visit. Thus, the factors that can influence the loyalty of tourists to cultural heritage sites will be of interest to both destination and policy makers.

There is extensive literature in the area of cultural heritage tourism but they mostly cover the preservation and management of sites (Araoz, 2011; Sulaiman, Yahaya & Khalid, 2012), educational aspects (Collins, 1983; D'Amore, 1990), importance of heritage tourism towards economic factors (Graham, 2002), and motivation (Chhabra, Sills, & Cabbage, 2003; Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006). However, studies that focus on the experiential aspects of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites are limited (Waterton & Watson, 2010). Only in recent years, has there been a spark of research venturing into tourists' emotional experiences, satisfaction and loyalty behaviour (Antón, Camarero, & Laguna-García, 2017; Mohamad et al., 2014; Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013; Su, Hsu & Swanson, 2017; Wee et al., 2012). These research works contributed to the cultural heritage tourism literature by providing causal relationship



between various constructs such as destination image, perceived authenticity, satisfaction and loyalty. This will be particularly useful in understanding the perceptions of tourists at cultural heritage sites in Malaysia as there have been issues and challenges in the implementation of projects in both historic sites of Georgetown and Melaka. According to Sulaiman et al. (2012), the current implementation of projects in both cities can have an impact on the preservation of the sites. This was due to the lack of comprehensive laws and guidelines to control development and brought up the question of why authorities are developing the cities with less focus on the impact it may have on the image of these cities as cultural heritage sites? Are tourists looking for all these new developments as predicted by developers, or do tourists prefer the authenticity of the sites without the new developments? These questions require more research to understand the motives and perceptions of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites. This will reduce the gap between local authorities' view on developing the sites and tourists' perceptions of the sites as well as understanding tourists' loyalty behaviour towards these sites.

This calls for further investigation into the determinants of destination loyalty as existing literature covers only some factors such as destination image (Ramseook-Munhurrin, Seebaluck, & Naidoo, 2015; Su et al., 2017), novelty seeking (Assaker & Hallak, 2013) and tourist memories (Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017). However, not all of these researches may apply to the context in Malaysia. Chi and Qu (2008) have also suggested including other antecedents of destination loyalty for future research. Moreover, there is scarcity of available information in regards to destination loyalty especially relating to cultural heritage sites.

Many scholars have commented that loyalty is a complex construct and is difficult to define. It is even more complex when it comes to destination loyalty, as a tourism destination is more complicated than a consumer product because it consists of a range of products and services such as accommodation, transportation, attractions, landscapes and other supporting services. Although many studies have indicated that destination loyalty refers to intention to revisit and intention to recommend (Chen & Chen, 2010; Chen & Rahman, 2018; Su et al., 2017; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) there are those who argued that loyal tourists may not necessarily revisit but will recommend (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). Moreover, Mckercher, Guillet and Ng (2012) suggested that destination loyalty is not necessarily geographically bounded but can focus on being loyal to a particular lifestyle. This aspect of experiential loyalty is still new in tourism literature and has yet to be explored in detail. Due to the complexity of destination loyalty, it requires further research to understand the construct and to examine the relationships of other possible factors that can influence the different dimensions of destination loyalty.

Besides the complexity of the destination loyalty construct, the empirical testing of the influence of tourist interactions and tourist emotions on destination loyalty still requires further consideration. Existing literature on social interactions relating to interactions with service staff is available but there is a gap in knowledge with regards to tourist-to-tourist interactions (Huang & Hsu, 2010). Tourist interactions are related to tourist emotions (Kastenholz et al., 2013), but most studies on emotions are within the consumer behaviour literature in retail and restaurants. There are still limited studies that are done within tourism destinations especially in cultural heritage settings and this requires for more research on emotions in tourism context (Cohen,

Prayag & Moital, 2014). Moreover, emotions are important factors in visits to heritage sites (Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Col, Sánchez-Garcia, & Prats-Planaguma, 2012). Emotions help in understanding tourist experiences that can contribute to the loyalty behaviour of tourists towards a destination. The conceptualization of emotions in literature is extensive with many different approaches used mainly in marketing and psychology but lacking in the context of destination specific characteristics (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Existing tourism studies also measure emotions in both positive and negative aspects and this requires further investigation. Furthermore, there are still differing views on the relationship between tourist emotions with satisfaction and destination loyalty. Therefore, further research is needed to examine the relationship of these constructs particularly in cultural heritage tourism.

In addition to the scarcity of research on tourist interactions and emotions, data on the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty are also limited, especially in relations to informational familiarity. Most studies in relations to cultural heritage tourism only examine destination familiarity in terms of repeat and non-repeat tourists as it has been assumed that repeat tourists are more familiar with the destination (Wee et al., 2012). However, this may not be accurate and that is why Baloglu (2001) introduced informational familiarity as another area of familiarity that should be researched further.

Perceived authenticity is another construct that has strong relations with cultural heritage tourism but has yet to be explored much within tourism marketing literature due to its complexity and contradictory views on its conceptualization (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). Furthermore, this construct has not been researched often with regard



to loyalty (Shen, Guo & Wu, 2014). Some researchers have even commented that studies on authenticity should be abandoned (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006) while others feels strongly that more research on authenticity should be conducted for a better understanding of this construct (Cole, 2007; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Pearce, 2007). This becomes a concern and therefore, the relationship between perceived authenticity, satisfaction and loyalty needs further investigation.

There is still limited literature that established other determinants of destination loyalty (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010) particularly in the context of cultural heritage tourism (Trinh, 2013). Furthermore, most research done on the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty has been in financial institutions (Wray, Palmer, & Bejou, 1994; Lang & Colgate, 2003), hotels (Bowen & Shoemaker, 1998; Scanlan & McPhail, 2000; Woo & Cha, 2002), and restaurants (Selness, 1998) but limited in tourism destinations. These alone are not sufficient to explain loyalty among tourists in cultural heritage tourism literature (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Back & Parks, 2003).

Another area that needs further exploration is the perception of different types of tourists based on their socio-demographic characteristics. Although there are many literatures covering the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty, the exploration on the perceptions of different types of tourists based on their socio-demographic characteristics is lacking, especially in cultural heritage tourism. Tourist characteristics play an important role in segmentation research, as the information is much easier to obtain and apply to segmentation issues (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, Sinkovics, & Bohlen, 2003). The investigation of socio-demographic

characteristics of tourists and their influence on behaviour will allow destination managers and marketers to develop tourism products and services to cater to the needs of tourists (Prayag, 2012). Researchers have suggested that tourist behaviours differ across socio-demographic characteristics (Gaffar, Wetprasit, & Setiyorini, 2011; Kvasova, 2011). It is therefore worthy to identify the differences in satisfaction and loyalty of tourists based on their socio-demographic characteristics. An understanding of tourist characteristics is the focal point for marketing of cultural heritage destinations (Gaffar et al., 2011).

In general, there has yet to be a comprehensive study that examines the influence of destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and tourist characteristics on destination loyalty altogether in one framework. This study aims to fill in these gaps in cultural heritage tourism literature by expanding on existing models of satisfaction and loyalty. **Hence, the main research problem of this study is: What are the determinants of destination loyalty of international tourists at cultural heritage sites in Malaysia?**

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This research aims to extend the existing literature on destination loyalty by examining the determinants of destination loyalty. Therefore, the following research questions were investigated:

1. What is the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty?
2. What is the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty?
3. What is the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty?

4. What is the relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty?
5. What is the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty?
6. What is the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty?
7. What is the mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationships between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty?
8. Do tourist characteristics such as (a) Age, (b) Gender, and (c) Nationality moderate the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty?

## **1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

Based on the research questions, the following research objectives were derived to address the research questions:

1. To identify the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.
2. To examine the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty.
3. To examine the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty.
4. To examine the relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty.
5. To examine the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty.
6. To examine the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty.
7. To identify if there is a mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationships between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourists emotions and destination loyalty.



8. To examine the moderating effect of tourist characteristics (a) Age, (b) Gender, (c) Nationality on the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.

## **1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

In view of the importance of cultural heritage tourism, this study focuses on understanding how destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and satisfaction can influence the loyalty of tourists towards cultural heritage sites. The study was based geographically in Georgetown, Penang and Melaka, which are listed among UNESCO's World Heritage Sites. These two sites are popular for cultural heritage tourism and can provide a sampling of cultural heritage tourists even though it may not cover all the cultural heritage sites in Malaysia.

For the purpose of this study, cultural heritage tourism is defined as the concept that looks at the travelling experiences of tourists at cultural heritage sites including historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battleground, cities, towns, and rural areas. Although it does not cover national parks, which are part of the heritage list under Jabatan Warisan Negara (National Heritage Department), it is still able to provide a good representation of cultural heritage settings. This provides a better focus on the cultural and heritage elements of the sites.

This study is limited only to international tourists visiting the cultural heritage sites in Georgetown, Penang and Melaka. The reason for focusing on international tourists is because inbound tourists contributes to the targeted tourist arrivals. Furthermore, it

will provide a better understanding of the destination loyalty intentions of international tourists because there are differences in destination perceptions of international tourists and domestic tourists (Bonn, Joseph, & Dai, 2005; Teo et al., 2014).

## **1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS**

There are several key terms that are used frequently in the current study. The definitions of the key terms are as follows:

- a) Heritage is classified into tangible and intangible heritage. Tangible heritage refers to the buildings, monuments and historical areas where as intangible heritage relates to the people, languages, dances, songs and even games that reflect the Malaysian community from the past (National Heritage Register, 2005).
- b) Cultural heritage tourism refers to tourists visiting cultural heritage sites where tourists can gain knowledge of the historical development of a destination or country (Sulaiman et al., 2012).
- c) Cultural heritage sites includes but are not limited to historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battleground, cities, towns and rural areas (Timothy, 2011).
- d) In the context of tourism and hospitality, loyalty is known more as destination loyalty and it is usually expressed as revisit intention, actual revisits and willingness to recommend the destination to others (Chen & Chen, 2010).
- e) Satisfaction is described as the overall satisfaction of the experience from visiting a cultural heritage site (Wu & Li, 2014).

- f) Destination image is the overall impression that a tourist has of a destination which can include their beliefs and values towards a certain place (Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015).
- g) Destination familiarity is defined in two dimensions, comprising of experiential familiarity and informational familiarity. Experiential familiarity refers to previous experience while informational familiarity relates to the frequency of exposure to destination related information (Baloglu, 2001).
- h) Perceived authenticity relates to existential authenticity that is more subjective and is depicted by the personal feelings that are activated from the involvement of activities which are authentic to the tourists (Wang, 1999).
- i) Tourist interactions include interactions with tourists and interactions with local communities. Interactions between tourists and other tourists can be split into two categories, namely, intragroup interactions and intergroup interactions. Intragroup interactions relate to the interactions between tourists and their travel companion while intergroup interactions refer to the interaction that tourists form with other tourists whom they have only met while in the course of their holiday (Pearce, 2005).
- j) Tourist emotions are depicted as intense feelings that are linked with a destination and can have contributions to certain behavior (Prayag et al., 2013).
- k) Tourist characteristics are socio-demographic characteristics of tourists visiting a particular destination. Tourist characteristics can include nationality, age and gender of tourists at a destination.



## 1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of five main chapters. The first chapter introduces the topic and provides an overview of the study. It discusses the background of the study, explains the problem statement and the research gaps, highlights the research questions and objectives, and provides the key terms used in this thesis. The first chapter also provides the outline of the thesis.

The second chapter of this thesis offers a comprehensive review of existing literature in the areas of cultural heritage tourism, loyalty and destination loyalty. This review provides the initial understanding of destination loyalty in the context of cultural heritage tourism before the start of the discussion on the links between destination loyalty and satisfaction as well as the mediating role of satisfaction. The second chapter also critically reviews on previous studies that postulated other determinants of destination loyalty such as destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions. In addition, this chapter reviews literature relating to tourist characteristics and its moderating role in the satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship.

The third chapter is the methodology chapter and the first part of the chapter provides the research framework and hypothesis of this study. Chapter 3 provides explanation of the research design as well as a detailed description of the operational definition of the variables used in the study. This chapter also elaborates the measurement variables used for the data instrument. This chapter explains the data collection that includes the sample, sample size and data collection procedures. Chapter 3 also provides a comprehensive explanation of the techniques of data analysis.

Chapter 4 reports the findings and data analyses of the study. This chapter explains the initial data screening measures and presents the respondents' characteristics. This chapter elaborates the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) results for both measurement and structural models. This chapter provides the findings that reports the significance of hypotheses testing.

Chapter 5 summarizes the findings in relation to the research questions and objectives of the study. This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the results with relevant supporting literature. This chapter discusses the implications of the study from the theoretical, methodological and practical point of view. Lastly, this chapter provides recommendations for possible future research in cultural heritage tourism.



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## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature that is important to the understanding of cultural heritage tourism and the concept of destination loyalty. The concept of destination loyalty is defined as a multidimensional construct in this study. This is followed by a discussion of satisfaction and the links between satisfaction and destination loyalty. Next, this chapter looks in detail at the notions of destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions. The review further discusses the relationship between these notions with destination loyalty and how these factors act as determinants of destination loyalty particularly in cultural heritage settings. The final part of this chapter describes the formulation of the research framework and the development of the hypotheses for this study.

#### 2.2 CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM

##### 2.2.1 Defining culture and heritage

The word ‘culture’ and ‘heritage’ carries different meanings in different contexts. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (2015), the word culture means

*“the distinctive ideas, customs, social behaviour, products, or way of life of a particular nation, society, people, or period”.*

This is similar to the Merriam-Webster (2015) definition where culture has been defined as:



*“the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a racial, religious, or social group”.*

Richardson and Fluker (2008) stated that culture is vital to tourism as most people are motivated to travel to experience the way of living of others and to learn from the heritage of that destination. The word ‘heritage’ on the other hand is more complex with academics and practitioners having different views of it. The Collins English Dictionary defines heritage as

*“the evidence of the past, such as historical sites, buildings, and the unspoilt natural environment, considered collectively as the inheritance of present-day society”.*

Although there are different definitions of heritage, most relate to inheritance from the past to current and future generations (Palmer & Tivers, 2019; Timothy & Boyd, 2003) and present day use of the past for tourism and other reasons (Timothy, 2011). Hall and McArthur (1998) define heritage as the values dictated by personal, family, the nation and the community. There have been debates over the term ‘heritage’ since the 1970s, which intensified during the 1990s (Palmer, 1999). Some argued that heritage is classified by tangible and intangible resources, and by the type of attraction (Prentice, 1993) such as natural heritage (Boyd, 1995), living cultural heritage (Nuryanti, 1996; Richards, 1996), built heritage (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000), industrial heritage (Jansen-Verbeke, 1999) and dark heritage (Lennon & Foley, 1999). Similarly, the Malaysian National Heritage Act (2005), classified heritage into tangible and intangible heritage. Tangible heritage refers to the buildings, monuments and historical areas where as intangible heritage relates to the people, languages, dances, songs and even games that reflect the Malaysian community of the past. The national register further classified heritage in Malaysia into sites (buildings,

archeological sites and natural sites), objects (tangible and intangible) and natural living persons. This is similar to the concept proposed by Carter and Horneman (2001) who categorized heritage as built (historic buildings and structures), cultural (monuments, architectural remains, tradition and culture) and natural (gardens, landscapes and national parks). As this study looks into the concept of cultural heritage tourism, the focus of this study is on the travelling experiences of tourists at cultural heritage sites including historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battleground, cities, towns, and rural areas.

Among the arguments on culture and heritage, there exist associations between culture and heritage as heritage relates to the past and present and includes the aspect of people, language and culture (Timothy & Boyd, 2003) as well as cultural landscapes, ideas, objects and places of the past and present (Palmer & Tivers, 2019). This is also apparent in the definition by Tahana and Oppermann (1998) where culture has been used to describe the context of cultural attractions that includes various forms of historical monuments, artefacts, festivals, dance presentations, and the different culture and uniqueness of lifestyle of indigenous people. These linkages go back to the overlapping definitions of culture and heritage. Hence, to simply put it, culture and heritage have strong connections and can be used interchangeably or together as 'cultural heritage'. Timothy (2011) suggests that cultural heritage can be in the form of tangible (buildings, rural landscapes, villages, cities, art collections, artefacts in museums, historic gardens, handicrafts and antiques) and intangible (music, dance, beliefs, social mores, ceremonies, rituals and folklore) elements. Connecting back to heritage, Ashworth (2003) views heritage as a commodity that depends on historical resources which then referred to as cultural heritage. Therefore,

the term 'cultural heritage' has been adopted for this study but more towards the context of cultural heritage sites that include but not limited to historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battleground, cities, towns and rural areas. As cultural heritage is seen as a product, many cities with unique elements of cultural heritage have started to pay attention to cultural heritage tourism (Wan & Cheng, 2011).

### **2.2.2 Notions of cultural heritage tourism**

Cultural heritage tourism has been used interchangeably by scholars as cultural tourism, heritage tourism and cultural heritage tourism. Hughes (1996) views most tourism as cultural as the majority of visits by tourists will involve some form of cultural activity or experience with other cultures. This is due to the nature of tourism which involves visiting places of interest which may or may not be culturally related to the tourist's heritage. Separately, cultural tourism has been defined as the participation of people in modern elements of culture, contemporary art and music, as well as visiting living cultures (Timothy, 2011). Other scholars explain cultural tourism as experiential tourism where people are involved in and attracted to the performing arts, visual arts, festivals, cuisines, history, nostalgia and other ways of life (Hall & Zeppel, 1990; Richardson & Fluker, 2008). On the other hand, Richards (2001) argues that cultural tourism includes both heritage tourism and arts tourism. However, Prentice (1993) suggests that cultural tourism and heritage tourism can be used interchangeably as the applications of both are very similar. Prentice (1994) further implies that heritage tourism is a form of cultural tourism derived from a country's heritage as it relates to the cultural elements found in buildings, places, artefacts and people's way of life.



Masberg and Silverman (1996) however, argue that cultural tourism and heritage tourism are not the same and should not be used interchangeably. Similarly, Moscardo (2010) views heritage tourism as looking at the past and cultural tourism as being skewed more towards the present. The National Trust for Historic Preservation (2015) in the United States defined heritage tourism as

*“traveling to experience the places, artifacts, and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present”.*

Timothy's (2011) definition is much simpler where heritage tourism represents travelers seeking experiences in built heritage, living culture and contemporary arts. Other authors classify heritage tourism as visits to heritage buildings (Black, 1990), visits to religious ceremonies (Rinschede, 1992), by historic attributes of a site (Seale, 1996), and tourists' motivations and perceptions (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2001). Heritage tourism was also referred to as the activities that involved visiting or experiencing heritage and can be in the form of natural, cultural and urban (Nguyen & Cheung, 2014). More recently, heritage tourism was referred to as the interaction experience between a tourist and the heritage site, which includes the interpretations and expectations of tourists towards the site (Egberts & Alvarez, 2018).

The definitions of cultural tourism and heritage tourism by Hall and Zappel (1990) provided a form of clarification to both notions as heritage tourism was clearly differentiated as experiential tourism which includes all forms of visits to preferred landscapes, historic sites, buildings or monuments to be part of nature or the history of the place whereas as discussed earlier, cultural tourism is experiential tourism where people are involved in and attracted to performing arts, visual arts and festivals.

Although the definitions differentiate between the two notions, there are still links between the two as Zappel and Hall (1992) further posit that heritage tourism is a form of special interest tourism which relates to the examination of physical remnants of the past to the local cultural traditions of the present. Hence, there are still overlapping views between cultural and heritage tourism. In South East Asia, the terms are used together as cultural heritage tourism. This is due to the nature of the destinations in this region where there are extensive heritage sites with cultural elements to them.

Cultural heritage tourism sums up the definitions of cultural tourism and heritage tourism. Cultural heritage tourism employs existing assets such as building environments, natural landscapes and cultural resources to convey stories of the people in the past to the present (Hargrove, 2017). The heritage sites can be used as a political tool to promote nationalism and is an important aspect of the daily life of the local communities because the sites creates use, value and meaning to the local communities (Apaydin, 2018). Similarly, cultural heritage tourism is seen as a catalyst in improving the quality of life of the residents (Hargrove, 2017). In the context of Malaysia, cultural heritage tourism has been defined as travel experience relating to cultural environments, heritage sites, landscapes, values and traditions (Ismail, Masron, & Ahmad, 2014). Additionally, cultural heritage tourism can simply refer to tourists visiting cultural heritage sites or monuments where tourists can gain knowledge of the historical development of a destination or country (Sulaiman et al., 2012). For the purpose of this study, cultural heritage tourism looks into the travelling experiences of tourists to cultural heritage sites that covers historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battlegrounds, cities, towns and rural areas. The terms

cultural tourism and heritage tourism will also be used interchangeably and this will be discussed further in the next section.

### **2.2.3 Research on cultural and heritage tourism**

As discussed earlier, cultural tourism and heritage tourism are strongly connected and are considered one of the fastest growing segment of tourism. With this growing importance, research across different themes has emerged for a deeper understanding of all aspects of cultural heritage tourism. Based on a review of the published literature, cultural and heritage tourism has been covered extensively over various themes. These themes include education (Moorhouse, tom Dieck, & Jung, 2017), importance of heritage tourism towards economic factors (Graham, 2002; Hargrove, 2017; Mitchell & Shannon, 2018; Underberg-Goode, 2014), heritage site management (Fullerton, McGettigan & Stephens, 2010; Steele, Harrington, & Vertigan, 2019; Wang & Zan, 2011), preservation and conservation (Araoz, 2011; Chong & Balasingam, 2019; Vileikis, Cesaro, Quintero, Balen, Paolini & Vafadari, 2012), tourism and product development (Ebejer, 2019; Ryan, Zhang & Deng, 2011), branding and promotion (Hakala, Latti & Sandberg, 2011; Marcotte & Bourdeau, 2012), implementation of e-services (Strielkowski, Riganti & Wang, 2012), socio-demographic profile of cultural heritage tourists (Santa-Cruz & López-Guzmán, 2017) and tourist perceptions and motivations (Anton et al., 2017; Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006; Ray & McCain, 2009; Su, Hsu & Swanson, 2017; Yankholmes & Akyeampong, 2010). These themes can be grouped into the broader topics of sustainability, management, and marketing and consumer behaviour.



The growth in cultural and heritage tourism research is in line with the growing importance of the industry with its many contributions in the form of economic, social, political and scientific significances as identified by Hall and McArthur (1993). In addition, heritage tourism provides opportunities for people to learn about the history and culture of a heritage place, thus contributing educational value also (McArthur & Hall, 1993). Scholars have since become more interested in conducting research in different areas of cultural and heritage tourism as indicated in the previous paragraph. From a conceptual point of view, Poria, Airey and Butler (2001) tried to clarify heritage tourism in their article titled "Challenging the present approach to heritage tourism: Is tourism to heritage places heritage tourism?". They concluded that differences exist between heritage and history, and the nature of heritage tourism stems from tourists' motivation, perception and behaviour to heritage sites. This article provided scholars with a sense of clarity on the concept of heritage tourism and with directions for future research in the area of cultural and heritage tourism.

Another area of research in cultural heritage tourism relates to its contributions to the economy. Graham (2002) stated that heritage tourism resources are vital to the global economy as it contributes to the sustainability of sites through the understanding of tourists who have experienced personal, national and regional heritage. Similarly, Underberg-Goode (2014) indicated that cultural heritage tourism on Peru's north coast played a vital role in the economic development opportunities for local residents. This was also evident in the findings of the study by the Travel Industry Association of America where tourists who are involved in heritage and cultural activities have a propensity to stay longer and spend more than the other travellers in the US (Hargrove, 2012). Furthermore, cultural heritage tourism contributes to

economic development strategy, revitalize communities and inspire recognition and development in the creative economy of a destination (Hargrove, 2017). Similarly, Mitchell and Shannon (2018) state that heritage sites are used to facilitate economic diversification. These cultural heritage tourism contributions will in turn provide motivation for other site and destination managers to focus on the preservation, conservation and management and marketing strategies for cultural heritage sites and attractions.

One study that looked into the management of heritage sites was by Wang and Zan (2011) in their article “Management and presentation of Chinese sites for UNESCO World Heritage List”. The study discussed various issues and problems involved in managing the complexity of 26 different heritage sites in China. The study observed that there were issues with identifying the management unit as the administration for the sites was not standardized and some were managed by local villager, local government agencies while others were privately managed. This posed a problem in the preservation and management of the various sites. However, the study further stated that from the managerial perspective, some sites did have administrative and economic benefits from the status of UNESCO WHS.

While Wan and Zan’s (2011) study emphasized on understanding the management practices, Fullerton et al. (2010) focused on integrating market research and marketing practices at heritage sites in Ireland as part of their management strategy. The study explored the potential in using marketing to understand visitor management for the preservation of heritage resources. The findings of the study suggested that market research and marketing communication are important in attaining a balance

between targeting cultural tourists and non-cultural tourists. The authors further added that it was important to educate tourists as well as site managers on the benefits of the preservation and sustainability of the sites. Both of these studies contributed ideas on site management and preservation and adds on to the literature of cultural heritage tourism. In addition to these studies, Steele et al. (2018) suggested the importance of engaging with local, professional, and educational communities to ensure the histories of places in Australia are valued and presented.

Preservation and conservation was another area that has been researched under the umbrella of cultural heritage tourism. Most of the studies done on preservation and conservation assessed the risk (Vileikis, 2012), issues and challenges in preserving heritage places (Araoz, 2011), and looked at the legal and planning issues (Sulaiman et al., 2012). The study by Sulaiman et al. addressed the issues in the development of Georgetown and Melaka as both are listed as historic cities under UNESCO WHS. According to the authors, heritage resources are the foundation of heritage tourism and hence special attention has to be given to ensure these resources are still available for future generations. This led to further research on the notions of motivation amongst tourists particularly on what motivates tourists to visit cultural heritage sites, tourists' behaviour and their perception towards the attributes of the sites. On the other hand, Chong and Balasingam (2019) have proposed to focus on stakeholder collaboration and involvement, stakeholder empowerment and the adaptive reuse approach as strategies to preserve and converse heritage sites.

Ray and McCain (2009) explored the motivations of tourists to their ancestral home. This qualitative study uncovered 17 different motivations from samples in the United



States and United Kingdom. These findings were extremely useful for the development of tourism strategies to attract more tourists to their ancestral home. Yankholmes and Akyeampong (2010) examined tourists' perception of heritage development in Danish-Osu, Ghana. The study looked into understanding tourists through their visitation patterns, knowledge and perceptions of Danish-Osu as a tourist destination and their attitude and support for heritage tourism in Danish-Osu. Similarly, Gaffar, Wetprasit, and Setiyorini (2011) investigated tourist perceptions of six destination attributes and their characteristics by comparing the tourists at heritage sites in Indonesia and Thailand. The results indicated that tourists in both countries were influenced by different attributes and this information could be used by their respective site managers. In Malaysia, there is also growing interest on research related to tourists at cultural heritage sites. Teo et al. (2014) conducted a study to understand the behaviours of visitors at cultural heritage sites in Melaka. Their findings revealed that there are different types of tourists based on their motivations. The grouping of tourists allows marketers to segment the market and plan their promotional materials more effectively. Another study on cultural heritage tourism was also conducted in Melaka and it explored the nostalgic, authenticity and diaspora dimensions of two Peranakan Chinese (Tan & Teoh, 2019).

There are recent literature in cultural heritage tourism that discussed the use of virtual and augmented reality to preserve archaeological historical sites and these platforms are used to present and interpret hidden stories of heritage (Figueiredo, Bernardes, Rodrigues, & Goncalves, 2018). In addition, there have been growing concerns highlighted by researchers about the risk of commodification for destinations in the long run due to the increased interest in heritage sites (Egberts & Alvarez, 2018).

While much has been written in the area of cultural heritage tourism, not many have focused on the experiential aspects of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites (Waterton & Watson, 2010). The latest research to consider the experiential aspect of tourists looked at the emotional experiences of tourists (Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Causevic, & Odeh, 2015; Prayag et al., 2013), satisfaction of tourists (Chen & Chen, 2010; Mohamad et al., 2014; Wu & Li, 2014) and loyalty behaviour (Gaffar, Wetprasit, & Setiyorini, 2011; Wee et al., 2012). In addition, there is research that has started to look at how trust, satisfaction and service quality can influence loyalty (Su et al., 2017). Loyalty is important as it can contribute to the sustainability of the destinations. Looking at the scarce information available with regard to destination loyalty, particularly in cultural heritage sites, this study aims to fill this gap in the cultural heritage tourism literature. Therefore, in the next section, the destination loyalty construct is discussed together with the various determinants of destination loyalty.

## **2.3 DESTINATION LOYALTY**

### **2.3.1 Definition of Loyalty**

Destination loyalty derives from loyalty studies which relate mainly to consumer loyalty. Research on loyalty, or as some prefer to call it brand loyalty, has been ongoing for more than 50 years. Some focused more on behavioural loyalty while others emphasized attitude but many have concluded that loyalty is a complex construct and difficult to define. Loyalty is the condition that is most desirable as the repeat patronage and relative attitude strength are high. In the context of tourism, this

loyalty typology was derived earlier by Backman and Crompton (1991) who operationalized loyalty as consisting of psychological attachment and behavioural consistency. Loyalty can also be measured from behavioural and attitudinal aspects, where behavioural aspect can refer to repeat visits while attitudinal aspect can refer to intention to recommend (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014).

Dick and Basu (1994) and Oliver (1999) are the researchers that have been most frequently cited as their work conceptualized loyalty as the combination of both behaviour and attitude. Dick and Basu (1994) covered spurious loyalty as part of their relative attitude-behaviour relationship. Spurious loyalty was explained as loyalty where a consumer's repeat patronage is high but relative attitude is low. For instance, tourists may return to a destination frequently due to familiarity and not necessarily because they have a positive attitude towards the destination. In the same relative attitude-behaviour relationship, Dick and Basu (1994) explained no loyalty, latent loyalty and loyalty. No loyalty signifies low repeat patronage and relative attitude. Latent loyalty on the other hand has high relative attitude but low repeat patronage. This situation happens often in the tourism context where tourists can be satisfied with a destination but may not return to the destination frequently. This will be discussed further in the next section of this chapter.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the Customer Loyalty Framework developed by Dick and Basu (1994). The framework includes cognitive, affective and conative antecedents as well as consequences in illustrating the loyalty concept. Social norm and situational influence are included as well in the framework.



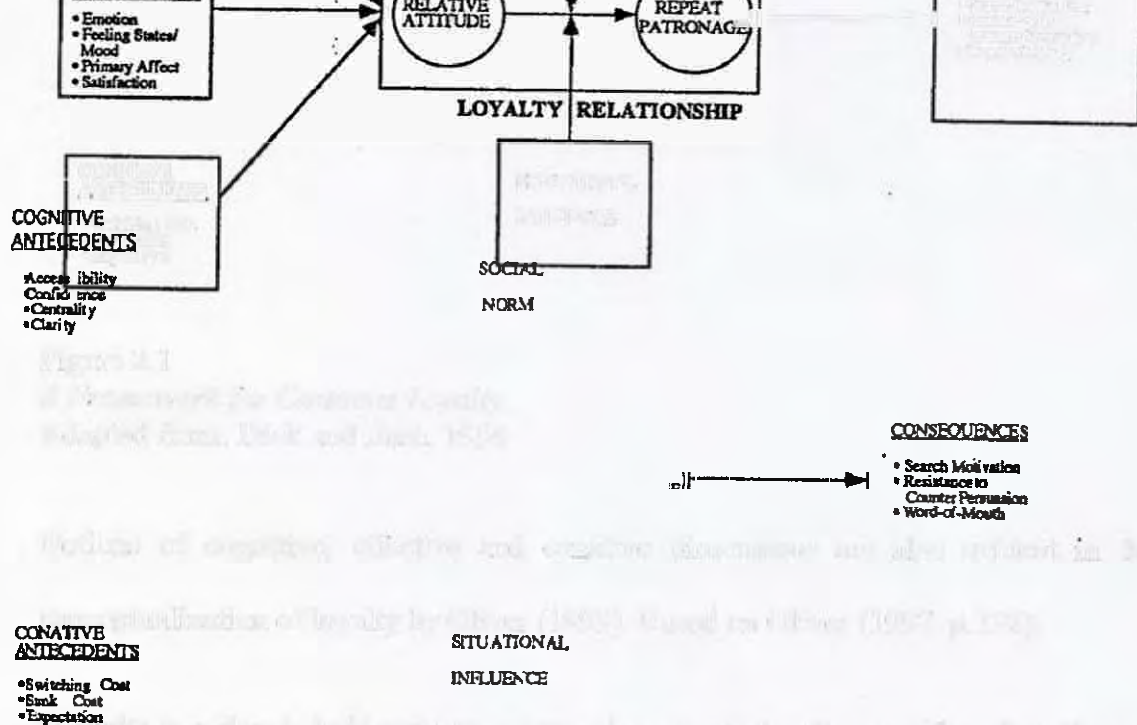


Figure 2.1  
A Framework for Customer Loyalty  
Adapted from: Dick and Basu, 1994

Notions of cognitive, affective and conative dimensions are also evident in the conceptualization of loyalty by Oliver (1999). Based on Oliver (1997, p.392):

*“Loyalty is a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour”.*

In the operationalization of the loyalty construct, Oliver (1999) categorized loyalty into four phases that start from cognitive to affective, conative and finally action. It argued that in the first phase of loyalty, the cognitive focus is preference towards a brand based on previous information or experience relating to the performance of a brand (in this case, destination). A tourist who prefers to visit Melaka instead of Kuantan because of positive reviews obtained in guidebooks about the cultural heritage sites in Melaka is an example of cognitive loyalty. As the tourist starts to develop liking for the sites in Melaka, satisfaction sets in and this reflects affective loyalty as there is development of a positive attitude towards the destination. After

several occasions of achieving affective loyalty, the next phase is conative loyalty which focuses on behavioural intentions. The level of commitment is higher at this phase with intention but not actual purchase.

The final phase is identified as action loyalty. This is the phase where the previous intention state is now transformed into actions. This is measured more as repeat visits to a destination by overcoming all possible obstacles such as visa applications. Overall, Oliver's (1999) operationalization of loyalty is based on different situations and conditions and this establishes the basis for loyalty studies in many areas. There are numerous studies in tourism that explains the links between satisfaction and loyalty (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Su et al., 2017; Wang, Yang, Han, & Shi, 2017; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and this is explained further in this chapter.

Many studies have been conducted on loyalty because of its managerial implications for long-term business survival and increasing competitiveness. Moreover, having loyal customers can increase revenue and profitability of businesses (Ahrholdt, Gudergan, & Ringle, 2019; Wieseke, Alavi, & Habel, 2014). As mentioned earlier, there are different views as to what comprises loyalty. Other studies viewed it as accepting price increases (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1996), the total number of store visits (Wieseke et al., 2014), repeat purchase intention (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999), word of mouth (Berry, 1999; Park, Kim, & Kwon, 2017), and/or repeat purchase behaviour (Ewing, 2000). In the context of tourism and hospitality, loyalty is known more as destination loyalty and it is usually expressed as revisit intention, actual revisits and willingness to recommend the destination to others (Antón et al.,

2017; Chen & Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). In the next section, the conceptualization of destination loyalty is discussed.

### **2.3.2 Concept of Destination Loyalty**

As highlighted earlier, loyalty is not a new notion and has been around for decades. However, loyalty in tourism only started to gain interest in the 1990's with studies by Backman and Crompton (1991) and Pritchard and Howard (1997). These studies started with the operationalization of loyalty in recreation programmes (Selin, Howard, & Cable, 1988) where the authors conceptualized loyalty based on a behavioural dimension and an attitudinal or commitment dimension to explain participants' loyalty towards municipal recreation programmes. Backman and Crompton (1991) extended the study of Selin et al. (1988) and applied it to participants' loyalty to certain recreation programmes by measuring loyalty using psychological attachment and behavioural dimensions. Based on that study, the loyalty typology was developed and golfers and tennis players were grouped into four domains of high loyalty, spurious loyalty, latent loyalty and low loyalty based on personal and environmental variables. The results of that study identified that golfers were more likely to have high loyalty and spurious loyalty while tennis players were categorized into latent loyalty and low loyalty categories.

The topic of destination loyalty of tourists has been debated intensively amongst academic with respect to its measurement (Ekinici, Sirakaya-Turk, & Preciado, 2013). The generalization of loyalty concept in tourism is difficult because of the differences in tourists' attitudes and behaviours across types of tourism (Choi & Cai, 2012). Destination Loyalty has been described as the behavioural intentions of tourists to



revisit and provide positive recommendations of a destination to others (Mohamad, Ali, & Ghani, 2011; Su et al., 2017). In tourism literature, loyalty has been focused on service brands (Campo & Yague, 2008), destinations (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018; McKercher & Guillet, 2011) and more recently on the antecedents of destination loyalty (Antón et al., 2017; Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015; Su et al., 2017; Zhang et al. 2014). In the same way as consumer loyalty, destination loyalty has been conceptualized as behavioural, attitudinal and composite loyalty (Zhang et al., 2014).

### **Behavioural, Attitudinal and Composite Loyalty**

Behavioural loyalty refers to actual buying behaviour such as a tourist revisiting the same destination or attraction while attitudinal loyalty measures more the concepts of brand preference where an individual develops positive attitude over time towards a destination or attraction (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Attitudinal loyalty can also be conceptualized as the desire of an individual to continue the relationship with a service provided (Chen & Chen 2010). In a study conducted by Zhang et al. (2014), behavioural loyalty was categorized as visit and visit intention while attitudinal loyalty was categorized as intention to recommend and preference. Composite loyalty is the combination of both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty where a tourist can have an intention to revisit a destination or attraction and is willing to recommend it to others. In some cases, attitudinal loyalty has been argued to be an antecedent to behavioural loyalty (Li & Petrick, 2008).

In the study by Campo and Yague (2008), loyalty of tourists towards the tour operator was examined based on the effects of price promotions and tourist's efforts to find out

information about prices and quality. In the context of destination loyalty, Oppermann's (1997) article discussed the initial idea of destination loyalty by establishing a link between previous destination purchase histories with future purchase behaviour. He emphasized that having an understanding of destination loyalty was important to tourism destination managers as it assist in providing knowledge of the demand for destinations and thus allow managers to devise suitable pricing and positioning strategies.

Then in 2000, Oppermann investigated whether past visitation frequency was a useful predictor of future destination choice. The study was done to address the need for more research in understanding why tourists would return to a destination as it was found that most previous studies were based on comparing the behaviour of first time and repeat visitors. Oppermann agreed on the use of behavioural, attitudinal and composite loyalty as indicators of loyalty but focused only on behavioural dimension in his study as it was easier and more acceptable in terms of measurement of the construct. It suggested that using the behavioural measure alone was enough to predict future tourist destination choice. On the contrary, Chen and Gursoy (2001) disagreed with this approach as they argued that tourists can be loyal to a destination even though they are not revisiting. In their study, they investigated the relationship between tourists' loyalty to and preference for a destination. They operationalized destination loyalty as the level of perception of tourists towards a destination based on the recommendation of the destination to others. In simpler terms, destination loyalty does not necessarily mean that tourists have to return to the same destination. Loyalty of tourists towards a destination can also be measured as the willingness to recommend to others as sole dependence on consumption behaviour is not sufficient

to fully explain the construct of destination loyalty. Hence, this calls for more research using composite loyalty for measurement. For the purpose of this study, the destination loyalty construct is operationalized as both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty where the indicators of loyalty are based on revisit intention and willingness to recommend. This is similar to the works by Antón et al. (2017), Chen and Chen (2010), Chen and Rahman (2018), and McDowall (2010).

### **Experiential Loyalty**

Destination loyalty is more complex than consumer loyalty in the sense that tourism is not really seen as the usual consumer product due to the nature of a tourism destination consisting of accommodation, attractions, landscapes and other supporting services. Because of this, McKercher and Guillet (2011) conceptualized destination loyalty in a different manner, suggesting that destination loyalty does not need to be geographically bound and that loyalty can occur on different levels. A further study by McKercher, Guillet and Ng (2012) argued that tourism loyalty should not only focus on a single destination or brand but reconsider the bigger tourism system to include vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty. Vertical loyalty relates to tourists who may be loyal to different levels in the tourism system. For example, tourists may be loyal to a particular travel agency or a particular airline company. Horizontal loyalty occurs when tourists are loyal to more than one brand in the same level within the tourism system. This is illustrated in the context of tourists being loyal to more than one hotel brand in a destination. Antón et al. (2017) further supported the argument by McKercher et al. (2012) on horizontal loyalty where tourists can be loyal to several destinations at the same time. Experiential loyalty seems applicable to most destinations as it refers to tourists who are loyal to certain holiday styles. This level of



destination loyalty can be examined in the context of cultural heritage tourism because tourists who visit different destinations can be loyal to visiting cultural heritage sites. This concept of experiential loyalty is explored in this study to identify if tourists are loyal to cultural heritage sites.

Currently, the operationalization of destination loyalty is still under debate. While some authors explored destination loyalty as actual revisitation (Oppermann, 2000), others measured loyalty in the attitudinal context (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Chen & Chen, 2010; Prayag et al., 2013). These studies also looked into the antecedents and determinants of destination loyalty. Satisfaction has been researched a lot and many tourism studies argued that satisfaction is an antecedent to destination loyalty particularly in influencing revisit intention and in recommending the destination to others (Campón-Cerro, Hernandez-Mogollon, & Alves, 2017; Mohamad et al., 2014; Wu & Li, 2014). This construct is discussed further in the next section.

## **2.4 SATISFACTION**

### **2.4.1 Definition of Satisfaction**

Before the introduction of the loyalty construct in literature, satisfaction was the key focus of consumer behaviour. In the service context, Crosby, Evans and Cowles (1990) defined satisfaction as the emotional state of customers when they evaluated their experience with a service or service provider. Satisfaction is also considered as the consumer's evaluation of his/her consumption experience with a product or service over time (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehman, 1994), and overall post-purchase evaluation (Fornell 1992; Sun et al., 2013). Customer satisfaction is an important

aspect that companies would want to achieve as it helps in generating loyalty behaviour (Clark & Maher, 2007), creating future purchase intentions (McAlexander, Kaldenberg, & Koenig, 1994) and customer referrals (Getty & Thompson, 1994; Verhoef, Franses, & Hoekstra, 2002). In the long run, customer satisfaction can lead to higher profitability for the company. Thus, it is vital to examine the construct of satisfaction and its influence on loyalty especially in the tourism context as tourist satisfaction has been suggested to be the most important determinant of destination loyalty due to its significant impact on destination selection (Ozdemir et al., 2012; Gursoy & Chen, 2014). Even though satisfaction is important in tourism studies, this construct still remains vague in its definition and disposition (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013).

The most broadly used definition of satisfaction in consumer behaviour is based on the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (Cotiu, 2013). The disconfirmation theory was conceptualized by Oliver (1980) where satisfaction was operationalized based on two constructs of performance and expectations. In that study, satisfaction was determined by evaluating the cognitive aspect of a consumer's perceived performance to see if it met or exceeded expectations. When a consumer's perceived performance has met or exceeded expectations, then there will be a positive disconfirmation and this means that the consumer is highly satisfied. However, when perceived performance is lower than expectations, the consumer will be dissatisfied (negative disconfirmation). This cognitive approach has been adopted and is still used by many in assessing the satisfaction of hospitality and tourism services (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2003). Likewise, in the context of heritage tourist satisfaction, Chen and Chen (2010) defined satisfaction as the function of pre-travel expectations and post-travel

experiences. However, some researchers do not fully agree with this theory as it has been reported to have issues with the measurement of the scores for expectations (Millán & Esteban, 2004). This is because when expectations and perceived performance are measured at the same time (in most cases where tourists are surveyed at the site), the expectations measured are based on the service received during the visit rather than the expectations before the visit. Therefore, true measurement of expectations may not be feasible unless the tourists have been asked about their expectations before arriving at the destination and then the same group of tourists are surveyed on the perceived performance of the destination. In most destinations where there is high volume of tourists, it may not be possible to maintain the same group of tourists for measurement of satisfaction before and after their visits.

Due to the limitations of the expectation-disconfirmation model, some researchers have operationalized the satisfaction construct based on the perceived performance model (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The perceived performance model was developed by Tse and Wilton (1988) and based on the authors' argument; satisfaction can be measured merely by the travel experience regardless of tourists' expectations before travel. These authors posited that actual performance and expectations should be measured separately and not by comparing the current performances with previous expectations. Kozak and Rimmington (2000) further added that as long as the performance of a service or product is at a desired level then satisfaction is achieved without comparing it to previous expectations. Additionally, Kozak (2003) postulated that the measurement of satisfaction can be based on the evaluation of destination attributes. Another theory of satisfaction looks into the equity theory by Oliver and Swan (1989) where satisfaction was defined as the relationship between the cost that



consumer spends and the rewards or benefits that the consumer receives. If a tourist feels that the amount of effort, time and money spent on travel is comparable to the benefits received, then the tourist will feel satisfied with the destination. In the context of cultural heritage sites, not all sites have entrance fee, hence this conceptualization of satisfaction was not considered for the purpose of this study.

Although many have used the cognitive approach to explain satisfaction, there has been a shift in focus to more affective components where some studies have considered the emotional aspect of measuring satisfaction. Some literature identifies satisfaction as the emotional response that stems from consumption experience (Eusébio, & Vieira, 2013) while Baker and Crompton (2000) explain satisfaction as a psychological state that arises from the interaction of a tourist with the destination and is essentially based on experiences at the destination. In the context of cultural heritage tourism, Wu and Li (2014) described satisfaction as the overall satisfaction of the experience from visiting a cultural heritage site. This overall evaluation of experiences after consumption is called experiential satisfaction. Recognizing the importance of both cognitive and affective approaches, del Bosque and Martin (2008) derived the cognitive-affective model where satisfaction is defined as the cognitive-affective state of an individual based on his/her experience. For the purpose of the present study, satisfaction was operationalized as both a cognitive (perceived performance model) and affective (experiential satisfaction) state.

#### **2.4.2 Relationship between satisfaction and loyalty**

As discussed previously, satisfaction had been researched extensively before the introduction of loyalty. When research focus changed to loyalty, satisfaction was still

evident in consumer behaviour literature and many relates to loyalty. Researchers identified the need to focus on investigating the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty because in the tourism literature, this relationship was lacking. Based on this gap in the literature, Yoon & Uysal (2005) developed the tourism destination loyalty framework that established the relationship between motivation, satisfaction and destination loyalty. In their study conducted in Northern Cyprus, the analysis of questionnaires from 143 respondents clearly indicated that there was a positive relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty and that satisfaction was a determinant of destination loyalty.

Similar results have been observed in several recent tourism studies as well where satisfaction was seen as an antecedent to destination loyalty in different contexts (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; San Martin, Collado, & del Bosque, 2013; Wang et al., 2017). In the review paper by Kumar et al. (2013), the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty was further enhanced when it was revealed that most literature showed a positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty. Even in the Malaysian context, the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty was evident in the research by Mat Som et al. (2011) and Shirazi and Mat Som (2013). Additionally, in the cultural heritage tourism literature, several researchers have discussed the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012; Su et al., 2017; Teo et al. 2014; Wu & Li, 2014) and have ascertained that satisfaction influences destination loyalty. Although all these literature established a link between satisfaction and loyalty, the way the two constructs are related differs across various studies. Palau-Saumell et al. (2012) and Su et al. (2017) noted that overall destination satisfaction significantly influenced destination loyalty and

behavioural intentions respectively. Satisfied Chinese tourists at Wu Yi Mountain National Park in the Eastern Coast of China indicated that they intended to revisit and provide word of mouth recommendations (Su et al. 2017). In the same way, results of the survey conducted on tourists at La Sagrada Família in Spain showed that satisfaction influences likelihood to revisit and likelihood to recommend. On the other hand, Eusébio and Vieira (2013) and San Martin et al. (2013) discovered in their findings that satisfaction is a stronger predictor for intention to recommend a destination to others rather than an intention to return. Likewise, McDowall and Ma (2010) concluded that international tourists in Bangkok were not likely to return even though they were satisfied, but they were willing to recommend to others. This may be related to the construct of novelty where tourists are always seeking for something new and hence are more willing to recommend than to return to the same destination.

Even though most of the literature agrees that satisfaction contributes to loyalty, there are differing views on this relationship. Um et al. (2010) found that satisfaction was not a strong indicator of revisit intention. This result echoed the conclusion reached by Bigne et al. (2001) where satisfaction was not significant in explaining intention to return. In addition to not having a strong influence of satisfaction on intention to return, satisfaction was also not a strong mediator between perceived attractiveness, perceived quality of service and perceived value for money with revisit intention (Um et al., 2010). On the contrary, several other studies showed significant results where satisfaction mediated the relationship between other determinants of loyalty and destination loyalty. Prayag and Ryan (2012) and Wang et al. (2017) shared the same thought where satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty. Mohamad et al. (2014) also revealed similar results, but in



their study satisfaction only partially mediated the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty. Expanding on the literature, Su et al. (2017) determined that satisfaction is a mediator in the relationship between perception (service fairness, service quality and destination image) and destination loyalty. The addition of other variables to these models of satisfaction-loyalty increased the explanation power for destination loyalty. According to Kumar et al. (2013), the level of prediction of loyalty will be better when other relevant variables such as moderators, mediators and antecedents are included in the models. This is because the variance explained by satisfaction alone is very small even though it has been proven that satisfaction is a contributing factor to loyalty. Hence, there is a need to review other possible variables that can influence destination loyalty. The relationship between other possible determinants of destination loyalty with satisfaction is discussed further in the next few sections of this chapter. In conceptualizing the framework for this study, satisfaction was considered as a mediator and a determinant of destination loyalty.

## **2.5 DETERMINANTS OF DESTINATION LOYALTY**

As previously mentioned, more recent tourism studies have focused on understanding the antecedents and determinants of destination loyalty. The most commonly examined determinant is satisfaction, which has been discussed in the previous section. Other constructs that have been investigated by tourism scholars include destination image (Chen & Phou, 2013; Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015), service quality (Moutinho, Albayrak & Caber, 2012; Kim, Holland & Han, 2013), perceived value (Wee et al., 2012; Sun, Chi & Xu, 2013), destination familiarity (Chen & Lin,

2012; Hong, Liu, Chou & Tsai, 2012), destination attributes (Eusébio et al, 2013; Ozdemir et al., 2013), perceived authenticity (Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Shen, Guo & Wu, 2014), tourist emotions (Prayag et al., 2013; Hosany et al., 2015), personal involvement (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; San Martin et al., 2012), tourist interactions (Huang & Hsu 2010) and others. Most of these constructs will be discussed in this chapter as they will form the conceptual framework of this study.

Service quality, perceived value and involvement however, will not be discussed as they are beyond the scope of this current study. In the context of cultural heritage sites like Georgetown, Penang and Melaka, there are various places like Fort A' Famosa that provide free access and allow visitors to explore on their own. Hence, there will not be any service personnel working at the sites and are thus not areas for investigating the influence of service quality on destination loyalty. Furthermore, since many of the places in these two sites are public places and do not incur any entrance fees to; it is not necessary to investigate the influence of perceived value in terms of cost on destination loyalty.

### **2.5.1 Destination Image**

Chapter 1 identified destination image as one of the main issues of tourism in Malaysia. Therefore, it is vital to pay close attention to understanding this construct and how it relates to satisfaction and loyalty particularly in a cultural heritage context. Destination image is another area of study that is popular within tourism literature and many authors have suggested that the studies on destination image started from the measurement of images by Hunt (1975) in the United States. This then moved on to different studies of images in other destinations. Many researchers recognized the

need to research destination image as it has been implied that destination image has an impact on destination choice, satisfaction and loyalty (Campón-Cerro et al., 2017; Chen & Phou, 2013, Kim et al., 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015) further added that destinations are required to pay attention to their image as it will result in increasing tourism receipts, income, employment and government revenues. Although many recognizes the many benefits of understanding destination image, research in examining the interrelationships between destination image, satisfaction, other determinants (familiarity, tourist emotions, tourist interactions) and destination loyalty is still scarce, particularly in relation to cultural heritage tourism. Thus, to bridge this gap in tourism literature, destination image was proposed as a determinant to loyalty, and the link between destination image with the other determinants and destination loyalty was examined.

Destination image has been defined differently by various researchers but most have adopted the definition by Crompton (1979, p. 18) who explained it as:

*“the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination”.*

Other similar definitions included the overall impression that a tourist has of a destination which can include their beliefs and values towards a certain place (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015). These definitions focus more on the individual but according to Jenkins (1999), images can also be perceived by groups. Chen and Phou (2013) viewed destination image as a form of cognitive image which focused on beliefs and knowledge about the physical attributes of a destination. On the other hand, Guliling et al., (2013) reviewed that destination image consists of both cognitive and affective images. Cognitive image consists of perception towards the



physical attributes of a destination (clean and well maintained cultural heritage sites) while affective image relates to the formation of feelings towards the destination (emotions toward the cultural heritage sites). This is very similar to the attribute-based and holistic components suggested by Echtner and Ritchie (1991). The only difference between the two concepts is that the holistic component includes both cognitive and affective images (that historic buildings create a sense of nostalgia). As has been highlighted earlier in the chapter that cultural heritage tourism covers the travelling experiences of tourists to cultural heritage sites that include historical monuments, buildings, museums, ruins, battlegrounds, cities, towns and rural areas; destination image was thus operationalized based on the broader concept by Ramseook-Munhurrin et al. (2015). Therefore, destination image in the context of this study was measured as the overall impression that tourists form during their visit to cultural heritage sites. For the purpose of this study, the relationship between these images with satisfaction and destination loyalty was examined. This is similar to the proposed conceptual framework by Gursoy, Chen and Chi (2014).

According to the literature, many have established that destination image exerts a positive relationship on either satisfaction or destination loyalty or on both constructs. A survey of tourists at the Angkor Wat Temple area, Cambodia has proven that destination image influences satisfaction (Chen & Phou, 2013). Similar results were also recorded by McDowall and Ma (2010), Prayag and Ryan (2012) as well as Wu and Li (2014). However, in a study conducted at Orlando by Kim et al. (2013), the authors shared that destination image does not significantly influence satisfaction. However, satisfaction acted as the mediator between destination image and destination loyalty. There was an indirect relationship between destination image and

destination loyalty where destination image was a moderating variable in the study. Ramseook-Munhurrin et al. (2015) found the same results from their study in Mauritius where destination image did not have a direct significant relationship with destination loyalty but had an indirect relationship with loyalty through satisfaction. In Malaysia, the studies carried out by Mat Som et al. (2011) and Mohamad et al. (2014) showed that tourists have the intention to revisit and to recommend Penang and Melaka respectively because of the image of the destinations.

### **2.5.2 Destination Familiarity**

Destination familiarity has not been researched extensively but in consumer marketing, familiarity is quite common among product categories (Horng, Liu, Chou & Tsai, 2012) as consumers who have a higher awareness and knowledge of a product will be able to make informed purchase decisions. Similarly, in tourism, a tourist who has done a proper search on the information related to a potential travel destination would have accumulated much knowledge and become familiar with the destination. Eventually, the selection of destination can be made after a proper evaluation has been done.

Earlier definitions of destination familiarity focused more on a single dimension where it was measured as previous visitation (Milman & Pizam, 1995). However, this is not necessarily accurate because there may be other factors that can increase destination familiarity. For this reason, Baloglu (2001) defined destination familiarity as two dimensions, comprising of experiential familiarity and informational familiarity. Experiential familiarity refers to previous destination experience or actual visitations to a destination (Baloglu, 2001; Tan, 2017). Other conceptualization of

familiarity such as number of previous visit and the differences of first time visitors and repeat visitors are also considered as experiential familiarity (Chen & Lin, 2012; Sun et al, 2013; Tan, 2017).

Informational familiarity on the other hand relates to the frequency of exposure to destination related information (Baloglu, 2001). This conceptualization is more substantial as most of the time, tourists will find information about a destination from various sources such as the Internet, brochures, guidebooks or discussion forms before making a holiday decision. This construct is of interest to this study as many cultural heritage sites may not have much historical or cultural information available at the site or even in pamphlets, websites or other sources of information. It is therefore noteworthy to explore this construct further and to identify if a tourist's overall visiting experience can be enhanced and eventually lead to revisit intention or intention to recommend because of the increase in destination familiarity.

So far, there has been limited recent literature that records the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty. In 1995, Milman and Pizam concluded that familiarity has significant influence on destination image and repeat intentions. Then Kozak, Bigne and Andreu (2004) ascertained that destination familiarity influences intention to revisit. In their study, destination familiarity was measured based on analysing the intention to revisit by repeaters. The findings indicated that repeat tourists have higher intention to revisit as compared to non-repeaters even though the satisfaction of repeaters is lower than non-repeaters. Likewise, Wee et al. (2012) discovered that visitors who have prior experience in visiting Melaka have intentions to revisit in the future. Similarly, San Martin et al. (2013) postulated that



past experience has an influence on destination loyalty. All these studies focused only on the single dimension of familiarity. Further examination is needed to include the informational familiarity dimension as part of the scale item for measurement. On the other hand, Tan and Wu (2016) found that familiarity did not have an influence on future visit intention of tourists to Hong Kong. Therefore, this calls for further investigation of the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty.

### **2.5.3 Perceived Authenticity**

The debate on the concept of authenticity started long time ago but to date, there is still much ambiguity on the topic. Authenticity has been recognized as an important concept especially in the context of cultural heritage tourism but it has not yet been explored much within the tourism marketing literature due to its complexity and contradicting views on its definition and conceptualization (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006; Kolar & Zabkar, 2007; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010). However, there have been several researchers who have tried to define and conceptualize authenticity for a better understanding of the concept in relation to tourism. Wang (1999) introduced existential authenticity while Olsen (2002) extended the constructivist approach by highlighting that authenticity is perceived more as a value. Wang (1999) clearly classified authenticity into 3 categories, namely objective authenticity, constructive authenticity and existential authenticity. Objective authenticity relates to the original objects that are toured by tourists such as artefacts in museums, while constructive authenticity is the result of toured objects that are perceived by tourists to be authentic. Both of these categories of authenticity are object-related as they refer to toured objects by the tourists. This can be categorized as object-based authenticity and

can relate to the desire of tourists to explore historical sites and gain authentic knowledge of arts, crafts and objects (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010).

Wang (1999) argued that in tourism contexts, defining authenticity by looking only at the originals of what is true and real is very limiting as in some cases, tourists who learn a traditional cultural dance at a destination should also be considered as authentic. That is why existential authenticity was introduced to be more relevant to tourist experiences. Existential authenticity is more subjective and is depicted by the personal feelings that are activated from the involvement of activities, which are authentic to the tourists. Existential authenticity can be further categorized into interpersonal and intrapersonal feelings (Bryce, Curran, O'Gorman, & Taheri, 2015; Wang, 1999). Interpersonal refers more to natural feelings while intrapersonal focuses on self-made feelings (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010).

The distinction between object-based authenticity and activity-based authenticity is viewed as important to some researchers because it cannot be investigated at the same time (Wang, 1999; Goulding, 2000; Kim & Jamal, 2007). However, Kolar and Zabkar (2010) view it differently and empirically tested the relationship between objective authenticity and existential authenticity. Reisinger and Steiner (2006) suggested that it is not possible to have a standard consensus among researchers on the definition and conceptualization of object authenticity and therefore this concept should be abandoned. Kolar and Zabkar (2007) strongly disagree with this and suggest that more research should be done on authenticity in order to have a better understanding of it and to define a more agreeable concept that will be acceptable to most researchers. Pearce (2007) and Cole (2007) also agree to further explore authenticity

to identify the links with other themes and social contexts in tourism. Furthermore, loyalty has not been researched often in relation to authenticity (Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Shen et al., 2014).

Several studies have empirically tested the relationship between authenticity, satisfaction and loyalty. Kolar and Zabkar (2007) surveyed visitors at Romanesque sites in four European countries and found that perceived authenticity was positively related to satisfaction and loyalty. This study was further extended by Kolar and Zabkar (2010) to explore the influence of object-based authenticity and existential authenticity on loyalty. The results indicated that both categories of authenticity influences loyalty (readiness to visit the site again and to recommend the site to friends or relatives). Similarly, Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011) discovered that perceived authenticity has an effect on the behavioural intentions of cultural tourists in Le Gorges National Park, Mauritius. It also found that authenticity is a moderator that connects information search behaviour, motivation, destination imagery and behavioural intentions. Other studies have also found a significant relationship between authenticity and loyalty (Bryce et al., 2015; Zhou, Zhang, & Edelman, 2013). However, Shen et al. (2014) shared different results on the influence of authenticity on loyalty. It was concluded in their study that only existential authenticity has an influence on loyalty. Constructive authenticity did not have an influence on loyalty. The differences in findings require further investigation into the relationship between authenticity and loyalty. Therefore, this warrants the inclusion of perceived authenticity as a determinant of destination loyalty. Additionally, further investigation is needed on the relationship between authenticity, satisfaction and destination loyalty.



#### **2.5.4 Tourist Interactions**

In the services marketing literature, interactions form part of a social activity that can enhance the overall service experience for a consumer. The most common form of interaction is between consumers and service personnel. This area has been researched extensively with many models of service quality being developed in assessing the quality of service encounters between consumers and service personnel. These studies postulated that a good service experience received from personnel can have positive impacts on satisfaction and intention to repurchase (Gountas, Ewing & Gountas, 2007; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; Pugh, 2001) as the interactions with service personnel is part of the overall service experience. However, what has been overlooked are that the interactions with other consumers can also have an impact on their overall service experience which can lead to satisfaction and intention to repurchase.

Similarly, in the context of tourism settings, the interaction between tourist and service personnel is not the only social contact that contributes to the tourist experience. The other types of interactions that are part of the tourist experience include tourist-to-tourist interactions and tourist-to-local community interactions (Pearce, 2005). A review article by Cohen, Prayag and Moital (2014) indicated that very little has been researched in the area of tourist-to-tourist interactions as a determinant of satisfaction. This echoes the thoughts of Huang and Hsu (2010) who have also identified that very little is known about tourist-to-tourist interactions and not much research has included this construct as the main focus of study. Recognizing this gap, it is important to examine the interactions of tourists at cultural heritage sites

and its relationship with satisfaction and destination loyalty. In addition to tourist-to-tourist interactions, it is also interesting to know if the interactions with local communities in reference to cultural heritage sites will have different findings.

Pearce (2005) has suggested that the interactions between tourists and other tourists can be split into two categories; intragroup interactions and intergroup interactions. Intragroup interactions relate to the interactions between tourists and their travel companion such as their family or friends who have travelled together with them on the holiday. In many cases, this is very common among tourists as most would have travelled with someone else or with a group of friends. However, there are those like backpackers, who may prefer to travel alone. In this instance, the interaction that they form with other tourists whom they have only met while in the course of their holiday is known as intergroup interactions. In cultural heritage settings, tourists who visit cultural heritage sites or cities can be independent travellers, families or even tour groups. It will be interesting to know if the various interactions among tourists groups will have an influence on their satisfaction and finally lead to destination loyalty.

In recent tourism literature, Huang and Hsu (2010) conducted a study to examine the interaction between tourists on a cruise holiday. The purpose of their study was to determine if tourist interactions had an impact on the overall cruise experience and satisfaction with the holiday. The findings of the study revealed that there was a positive direct influence of tourist interactions on the cruise experience and a positive indirect influence on satisfaction. This is similar to the findings by Wu (2007) where there is an influence of customer-to-customer interaction on satisfaction of customers within the tour groups in Taiwan. The findings strengthen the suggestion by Martin

(1996) to include customer-to-customer interactions in a relationship marketing model as it was postulated that having an understanding of customer-to-customer interactions can be beneficial in heightening the business and consumer relationship. In the long run, this focus on understanding the customer-to-customer interactions can have an impact on customer loyalty (Morais, Dorsch & Backman, 2004). Therefore, for future research, Huang and Hsu (2010) suggested including the loyalty construct as the consequence of tourist interactions. In view of this, tourist interaction is included in the framework of this study. However, the operationalization of tourist interactions for this study also included both interactions between tourists with other tourists and interactions between tourists with locals at cultural heritage sites.

Although studies on tourist interactions are scarce, there is still literature that supports the importance of this construct. The study on backpackers by Murphy (2001) discovered that one of the main contributing factors for backpackers to decide on backpacking is social interaction. Locker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) and Morgan (2007) both agree that the interactions with other tourists and locals were important elements to the experiences of tourists in backpacking and sports tourism. Hence, this study proposes to include both interactions with tourists and locals. In the instance of cultural heritage sites, having a local familiar with the history and stories of a place who can share his/her knowledge with tourists can in turn increase the overall satisfaction and potential loyalty of tourists.

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As tourist interactions basically involve social contact, there is a certain amount of emotion that will be generated during the process of interaction with other tourists (Huang & Hsu, 2010). For example, if a tourist is on a holiday to Melaka with the



entire family and comes across other families in their tour group who are very friendly towards them, it can create a joyful feeling for the tourist. Alternatively, if the family came across a local who is knowledgeable and willing to share the stories of the cultural heritage site, the tourist will also develop some sort of feeling towards the destination. This means that a relationship may exist between tourist interactions and tourist emotions as suggested by Kastenholz et al. (2013). In their study, it was highlighted that part of the cultural tourist experience that focused on interactions with locals supported tourist emotions.

### **2.5.5 Tourist Emotions**

Emotions can be generated anywhere and it is an important aspect in understanding the behavioural intentions of consumers. In recent years, a growing amount of research in tourism has emerged in understanding emotions (Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011; Hosany et al., 2015; Prayag et al., 2013). The recent emotions related studies have been done in the areas of festivals (Grappi & Montanari, 2011; Yang, Gu, & Cen, 2011), restaurants (Han & Jeong, 2013), mountaineering experiences (Faullant et al. 2011), hedonic holiday destinations (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010) and cultural heritage tourism (Prayag et al., 2013). Emotions are affective states illustrated by a series of intense feelings related to something specific and can contribute to behavioural intentions (Hosany et al., 2015). Emotions are also defined as a mental state of readiness that results from the cognitive evaluations and it is usually complemented with the functional processes and physical expressions (Bagozzi, Gopinath & Nyer, 1999; Grappi & Montanari, 2011). Likewise, tourist emotions have been depicted as intense feelings that are linked with a destination and can contribute to certain behaviours (Prayag et al., 2013). The similarity in all these

definitions essentially means that tourist emotions can be explained as feelings felt by the tourists based on their evaluation of the destination. This is highly affective and in many instances is tied in with satisfaction towards the destination.

Emotions play a vital role in explaining tourist experiences which can eventually contribute to the loyalty behaviour towards a destination and Palau-Saumell et al. (2012) have emphasized that tourist emotions are important factors in visits to heritage sites. Emotions have been recognized by Gnoth (1997) as a predictor for future behaviour and this is relatively important in the context of tourism destinations. Although many studies have been done in the area of emotions, most are within consumer behaviour in retail and restaurants. There is still limited literature covering tourism destinations especially cultural heritage destinations and this calls for more research to be done relating to emotions in tourism context (Cohen et al., 2014).

There are various approaches that have been discussed in relation to the conceptualization of emotions. Faullant et al. (2011) felt that emotions can be categorised as basic emotions and dimensional emotions. Basic emotions, as proposed by Izard (1977) and Ekman (1982), were more specific. According to Izard (1977), emotions can be measured as anger, contempt, disgust, distress, fear, guilt, interest, joy, shame and surprise. Ekman's (1982) suggestion was more refined and only measured six emotions of anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness and surprise. Other schools of thought preferred to separate emotions into dimensions of negative and positive (Watson & Tellegen, 1985), or pleasure and arousal (Russell, 1980; Laros & Steenkamp, 2004; Walsh, Shiu, Hassan, Michaelidou & Beatty, 2011). The measurement by both schools of thought have overlapping items and are not in

conflict with each other (Faullant et al., 2011) and therefore, either approach can be used.

Emotions were also discussed from three different perspectives: the naturalistic perspective, the social constructivist perspective and the cognitive appraisal perspective (Gao & Kerstetter, 2018). The naturalistic perspective believes that emotions are outcomes of natural mechanism such as hormones, neuro-muscular feedback from facial expressions, and genetic mechanisms (Ratner, 1989) while the social constructivist perspective describes emotions as being develop during social interactions (Boiger & Mesquita, 2012). On the other hand, cognitive appraisal perspective considers emotions as the evaluation and interpretation of an individual's experience (Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990).

Most of these perspectives are more applicable to marketing and psychology studies and may not necessarily consider the specific characteristics of a destination (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Noting this limitation, Hosany and Gilbert developed the Destination Emotion Scale (DES). This scale consisted of 15 items, most of them positive emotions that were categorized into joy, love and positive surprise. The joy dimension consists of five items: cheerful, pleasure, joy, enthusiasm, and delight. These items summarizes a joyful experience and tourism literature has indicated that joyful experience is a key motivational factor in tourism (Prayag et al., 2013). Likewise, the love dimension has five items: tenderness, love, caring, warm- hearted, and affection. Love as a construct has been gaining attention in the marketing field as brand love and has been conceived as an emotion rather than a relationship (Moussa, 2019). The third dimension in DES is pleasant surprise and this includes five items:



amazement, astonishment, fascinated, inspired, and surprise. Previous studies have investigated the relationship between surprise with satisfaction and loyalty (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). The initial DES was further enhanced by Hosany and Prayag (2013) to include unpleasantness as it was identified that there is a need to include negative emotions which can influence tourist experiences (Prayag et al., 2013). Unpleasantness dimension consists of four items: regret, unhappiness, disappointment and displeasure.

With the many scales that have been implemented, studies have shown that emotions are related to satisfaction (De Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Faullant et al., 2011; Palau-Saumell et al., 2012) and loyalty (Hosany et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2011) while others established that emotions influences both satisfaction and loyalty (Babin, Lee, Kim & Griffin, 2005; Prayag et al., 2013; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). The study by Prayag et al. (2013), postulated that the emotions of joy, love and positive surprise have a positive influence on satisfaction while unpleasantness has a negative influence on the satisfaction of tourists at Petra, Jordan. The findings also discovered that emotions have a direct influence on behavioural intentions. However, in the study by Lee, Lee, Lee and Babin (2008), it was found that emotions had no significant relationship with loyalty. These discrepancies in tourism studies require further investigation into the relationship between emotions, satisfaction and loyalty. Hence, tourist emotions was included in this study as a determinant of satisfaction and destination loyalty.

## 2.6 TOURIST CHARACTERISTICS AS A MODERATOR BETWEEN SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY

Despite the amount of literature covering the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty, there has been limited exploration on the perceptions of different types of tourists based on their socio-demographic characteristics, particularly in cultural heritage tourism. Tourist characteristics play an important role in segmentation research, as the information is much easier to obtain and apply to segmentation issues (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, Sinkovics & Bohlen, 2003). The investigation of socio-demographic characteristics of tourists and their influence on behaviour will allow destination managers and marketers to develop tourism products and services to cater to the needs of tourists (Prayag, 2012). Moreover, an understanding of tourist characteristics is the focal point for the marketing of cultural heritage destinations (Gaffar et al., 2011). Therefore, it is worthwhile identifying the differences in the satisfaction and loyalty of tourists based on their socio-demographic characteristics.

Previous studies that have researched on tourist characteristics covered different groupings of variables. Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) empirically tested whether the six key socio-demographics variables of gender, age, marital status, number of children, education and social status could be used in profiling green consumers. Based on their results, it was found that gender, number of children, education and social class had an impact on environmental attitudes but none of the socio-demographic variables had an impact on environmental knowledge. Moreover, the impact on environmental behaviour was also not evident and segmentation profile could not be developed. On the contrary, Kvasova (2011) was able to determine a

relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and the behaviour of Swedish and Russian tourists in Cyprus. It was found that Swedes, females, older people, people with children and better-educated people displayed higher environmentally friendly behaviour as compared to others. As these studies were conducted on environmental concerns, the findings may be different from those in cultural heritage tourism contexts. The influence of socio-demographic characteristics on the behaviour of tourists needs further exploration.

According to Prayag (2012), nationality is one of the more popular variables that have been researched in terms of understanding differences in image perception. Other variables discussed were household status, income, geographic distance, length of stay, person travelling with and purpose of visit. The study concluded that nationality, marital status, purpose of visit and length of stay were useful segmentation variables. In terms of nationality, Teo et al. (2014) identified differences in behaviour between local and international tourists. Gaffar et al. (2011) also found differences in the satisfaction of tourists to heritage sites in Indonesia and Thailand. Kim and Brown (2012) were able to determine that length of stay had positive impacts on satisfaction and likelihood of future behaviour of tourists at the Flinders Rangers Region in Australia. Mendes, Valle, Guerreiro and Silva (2010) explored age, nationality and education as moderators between the satisfaction and loyalty relationship. The results showed that these socio-demographic characteristics moderated the satisfaction and loyalty constructs. It established that older tourists showed higher levels of satisfaction and loyalty as compared to younger tourists while younger tourists with lower educational qualifications have a tendency not to return to the same destination even though they are satisfied with the destination. However, other literature found



that age, gender and nationality do not moderate the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty (Assaker, Hallak, Assaf, & Assad, 2015; Chi, 2011). As previous studies showed different findings in tourists behaviours based on their socio-demographic characteristics, it is therefore important to include tourist characteristics as a moderating variable in the research framework of this study. The tourist characteristics variables that were included are nationality, age and gender.

## **2.7SUMMARY**

The review of the tourism literature found that satisfaction, destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions can influence destination loyalty. Many researchers concluded that satisfaction was a mediator between destination image and destination loyalty as well as between destination familiarity and destination loyalty. Destination loyalty was operationalized differently for different studies. For this study, it was operationalized as intention to revisit, intention to recommend to others and experiential loyalty. A review of the literature therefore, provided the basis for the development of the research framework that focused on the extension of the destination loyalty model.

## **CHAPTER3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, a detailed literature review on cultural heritage tourism and destination loyalty as well as the determinants of destination loyalty was provided. As the purpose of this study is to determine the influencing factors of destination loyalty, this chapter firstly discusses the research framework with a review of the underpinning theory and the development of hypotheses. Then, it looks at the methodology used in addressing the research questions and objectives as well as the testing of the research framework. This chapter elaborates on the research design, operationalization of the variables, sampling plan along with the data collection method and measurement. In addition, the data analysis is explained together with the justification of the selection of statistical techniques.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK**

Based on the review of literature, an integrative framework was developed and the components are presented in Figure 3.1. This study focuses mainly on the loyalty of individual tourists towards cultural heritage sites. Besides identifying the loyalty of tourists, the present study also explores the factors that can influence tourist loyalty. The basis for this integrative framework was guided by the principles of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) and the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Homans, 1958). This is similar to an integrative model developed by Ribeiro,

Pinto, Silva and Woosnam (2017) that used TRA and SET in the context of residents' perception of pro-tourism behaviour.

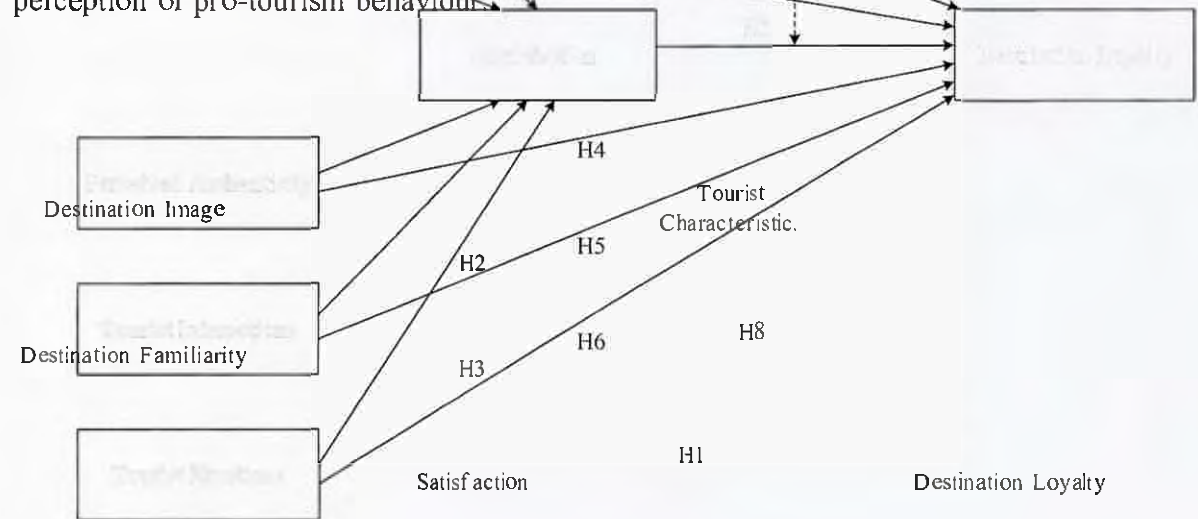


Figure 3.1  
Perceived Authenticity



Figure 3.1  
Research Framework

TRA is an attitude-behaviour model that has been applied in various settings such as the behaviour of food tourists (Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011) and green product consumption (Paul, Modi, & Patel, 2016) to predict intentions and behaviours. Based on TRA, attitude and behaviour are closely related in the sense that behaviour is predicted by the intention to perform a certain behaviour and intention is based on the attitude to perform that certain behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977).

It has been postulated that TRA consists of affective, cognitive and conative components (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1987) and relates to attitude, subjective norm and



behavioural intentions respectively. Most theorists posited that evaluation is the main component of attitude but some psychologists focused on affective term (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). Attitude has been defined as the overall evaluation of an object, subject or behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Friedkin, 2010; Mobin-ul-Haque, Azhar, & Manqoosh-ur-Rehman, 2014). Attitude is part of the affective component of TRA because the evaluation of an object includes the positive or negative feelings that an individual has towards the object or behaviour (Sparks, 2007). This is similar to one of the definitions of satisfaction that was previously discussed in Chapter 2. Kim et al. (2011) suggested replacing attitude with satisfaction in their proposed modified TRA model because satisfaction is highly affective in nature. In the context of this study, satisfaction also represents the attitude component of TRA because it focuses on the evaluation of feelings toward an object. Furthermore, existing literature has shown that satisfaction has a relationship with behavioural intentions of tourists to a particular destination (Wu & Li, 2014).

The basis of this research framework was also derived from the hypothesized causal relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty by Yoon and Uysal (2005), referred to as the Tourism Destination Loyalty Theory (TDLT). This theory was developed based on the conceptualization and operationalization from Backman and Crompton (1991), Dick and Basu (1994), Oliver (1999) and Oppermann (2000). The early discussion by Dick and Basu (1994) emphasized the attitude-behaviour relationship derived from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). The relative affective attitude component posited that satisfaction was an antecedent of loyalty and this was adopted as an influencing factor of loyalty in the TDLT. Yoon and Uysal (2005) agreed with the idea that satisfaction was an important assessment tool for

evaluating travel experiences in which the positive travel experiences (satisfaction) of tourists will lead to loyalty (repeat visits and recommendations to friends and/or relatives).

The initial idea of destination loyalty was introduced by Oppermann (2000) who discussed the need to research more into the reasons that contribute to tourists returning to a destination. Chen and Gursoy (2001) argued that destination loyalty should also look into intention to recommend and hence the destination loyalty construct by Yoon and Uysal (2005) incorporated both behavioural and attitudinal measures. This is the same way that the destination loyalty construct was measured for this study. As an extension of TDLT, experiential loyalty (e.g. intention to repeat cultural heritage activities or experiences at a different destination) that was conceptualized by McKercher et al. (2012) was also added as part of the destination loyalty measure. Therefore, the concept of destination loyalty for this study is a multidimensional construct consisting of behavioural loyalty, attitudinal loyalty and experiential loyalty. Destination loyalty in this integrative framework represented the behavioural intentions in TRA. Behavioural intentions consists of personal (attitude) component and social (subjective norm) component (Ryu & Han, 2010), which in the context of this study, satisfaction represents the attitude component and tourist interactions represent the subjective norm component. The subjective norm is discussed further in the subsequent paragraphs.

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TDLT has also been applied by other studies conducted in World Heritage Sites where satisfaction was proven to be a predictor of destination loyalty as well as a mediating variable (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012; Su et al., 2014). In both studies,

satisfaction was conceptualized as tourist's overall satisfaction with the experience or performance at the destination. Therefore, in this study, satisfaction was also defined as the overall satisfaction of tourists consisting of both perceived performance and tourists' affective (experiential satisfaction) state.

The cognitive component of TRA is subjective norm, which refers to an individual's perception of the influence of important others' beliefs or opinions (Horng, Su, & So, 2013). Important others can be the social references that influence an individual's attitude to perform a certain behaviour. Although TRA has been a popular model and well accepted by others (Mobin-ul-Haque et al., 2014), some researchers argue that subjective norm and attitude should not be measured separately because there is an overlapping effect (Oliver & Bearden, 1985). In addition, the lack of clarity on the differences between the beliefs that contribute to one's attitude and one's subjective norm can indicate that the two constructs are highly correlated (Hale, Householder, & Greene, 2002). One proposed solution is to focus on behavioural beliefs as preferences of others instead of normative beliefs. This will lead to having subjective norm as an antecedent of attitude and behavioural intentions (Park, 2000). This solution was considered, as satisfaction was operationalized as attitude while tourist interactions replaced subjective norm because it relates to influences of other tourists and locals at a cultural heritage site.

In addition, it was posited that the affective component of TRA was not effectively measured as both attitude and emotions constructs are empirically different (Henning, Thureau, & Feiereisen, 2012). Due to this, Mobin-ul-Haque et al. (2014) proposed that the emotional aspect be included in the TRA model as an antecedent and mediator.



The addition of the emotions construct in the TRA model can enhance the predictability of human behaviour. Moreover, the literature highlights that tourist emotions influences satisfaction (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012) and behavioural intentions (Yang, Gu, & Cen, 2011). Therefore, the emotions construct was incorporated into the current integrative research framework as an influencing factor of satisfaction and destination loyalty.

Previous discussions mentioned that a modified TRA model with satisfaction replacing the attitude component of TRA was adopted for this study. In addition to satisfaction as the attitude component, satisfaction was also recognized as an outcome of interpersonal variables in the SET (Choo & Petrick, 2014). SET refers to the exchange of resources amongst individuals or groups and that satisfaction was influenced by the outcomes (social and economic) of these exchanges (Homans, 1958). This means that social exchange relationships can occur in any interactions. In a tourism context, if a tourist develop social relationships with the travel companion, other tourists or even the locals at any point of time of their travel, it can influence the satisfaction of that tourist. Choo and Petrick (2014) proposed four types of interactions that included interactions with service providers, interactions with other customers, interactions with locals and interactions with companion tourists. All interpersonal interactions except interactions with locals were found to influence tourists' satisfaction, which in turn influenced revisit intentions of tourist. These interactions provide a form of social exchange in which the information about the travel destination, experience or even activities are the resources that were exchange in the interaction process and this relates to the resource exchange theory. These exchanges of resources can satisfy the personal needs of individuals (Foa & Foa,

1980). In reference to the study by Choo and Petrick (2014) that used SET, this study also referred to SET and included tourist interactions in the integrative research framework.

As the main purpose of this study was to determine the influencing factors of destination loyalty, satisfaction, emotions and interactions were not enough to predict loyalty. Kumar et al. (2013) suggested including other antecedent variables, moderators and mediators to increase the level of prediction of loyalty. Gursoy et al. (2014) also proposed examining other antecedents of destination loyalty in cross-cultural settings and Asian countries. Furthermore, Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) suggested including other relevant constructs to the TRA model to increase its predictability. Recognizing the need to incorporate other factors and based on the literature review on destination loyalty, this study included three other influencing factors on loyalty and one moderating variable. Therefore, the integrative research framework incorporated destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and satisfaction as influencing factors. The moderating variable for this research framework were tourist characteristics while the mediating variable is satisfaction.

### **3.3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

As discussed earlier in the context of tourism destination loyalty, there is a well-established relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. In a recent study conducted in Australia, satisfaction was found to be the stronger predictor of destination loyalty (Hallak, Assaker, & El-Haddad, 2018). Previous studies have also

empirically tested and supported the causal relationship where satisfaction influences destination loyalty (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Chen & Chen, 2010; Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Marcussen, 2011; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; San Martin et al. 2013). It was discussed that overall destination satisfaction has the influence to increase the possibility of revisit intention and recommendation to others (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012; Su et al., 2014). It was also suggested that satisfaction is the most important determinant of destination loyalty as it has significant impact on destination selection (Gursoy & Chen, 2014; Ozdemir et al., 2012). Based on the aforementioned discussion, it was hypothesized that:

**H1: Satisfaction has a positive influence on destination loyalty.**

Many researchers agree that destination image has an impact on destination choice, satisfaction and loyalty (Chen & Phou, 2013, Kim et al., 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). According to previous literature, many have established that destination image has a positive relationship with destination loyalty. In the studies conducted by Kim et al. (2013) and Ramseook-Munhurrin et al. (2015), destination image has an indirect relationship with destination loyalty through satisfaction. In the Malaysian scene, Mat Som et al. (2011) and Mohamad et al. (2014) showed that destination image influenced the intention of tourists to revisit and to recommend Penang and Malaysia respectively to family, friends and relatives. In recent research, links were also established between destination image and destination loyalty (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Assaker et al., 2015; Chung & Chen, 2018; Wu, 2016). Therefore, it was assumed that when the perceive image of the cultural heritage sites is positive; it will influence tourists to recommend the site to other and have intention to visit the same



site or other cultural heritage sites to obtain the same experiences. Thus, the current study hypothesized the following:

**H2: Destination image positively influences destination loyalty.**

Destination image and repeat intentions have been stated to be influenced by destination familiarity, which is knowledge gained from previous visits (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Kozak, Bigne and Andreu (2004) also confirmed that repeat tourists had higher intention to return to the destination as compared to non-repeaters. Likewise, Wee et al. (2012) discovered that visitors who had visited Melaka before showed intention to revisit in the future. Baloglu (2001) explored the use of informational familiarity in explaining destination familiarity. This implies that the more familiar a tourist is with the cultural heritage sites, the higher the intention will be in revisiting and recommending to others. On this basis, the following hypothesis was developed:

**H3: Destination familiarity has a positive influence on destination loyalty.**

Previous studies empirically tested the relationship between authenticity, satisfaction and loyalty. Kolar and Zabkar's (2007) study on visitors at Romanesque sites in four European countries found that perceived authenticity was positively related to satisfaction and loyalty. Then Kolar and Zabkar (2010) explored the influence of object-based authenticity and existential authenticity on loyalty and determined that both categories of authenticity influenced loyalty (readiness to visit the site again and to recommend the site to friends or relatives). Further evidence was also found in Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011) who discovered that perceived authenticity had an effect on behavioural intentions of cultural tourists in Mauritius. More recently, the

findings documented by Shen et al. (2014) concluded that existential authenticity has an influence on loyalty. All these studies indicate that if tourists perceive the destination or their experience to be authentic, it will lead to an intention to return or to recommend to others. Hence, it was hypothesized that:

**H4: Perceived authenticity positively influences destination loyalty.**

In recent tourism literature, Huang & Hsu (2010) revealed that tourist interactions positively influenced the cruise experience of tourists which then led to satisfaction. Similarly, findings by Wu (2007) also provided evidence that customer-to-customer interaction influenced satisfaction of customers in the tour groups to Taiwan. Martin (1996) suggested that having an understanding of customer-to-customer interactions can be beneficial in heightening the business and consumer relationship. Morais et al. (2008) further added that focusing on understanding customer-to-customer interactions can have an impact on customer loyalty in the long run. Huang & Hsu (2010) agreed and suggested including loyalty construct as the consequence of tourist interactions for future research. It is assumed that having locals or other tourists sharing the history and stories of a place can increase the overall satisfaction and potential loyalty of tourists to revisit and to recommend to others. Thus, the following was hypothesized:

**H5: Tourist interactions positively influence destination loyalty.**

When a tourist interacts with another tourist or with a group of tourists, there will be some emotions generated during the process of interaction as the tourist may develop a sense of pleasure because the other tourist is knowledgeable about the destination, or a sense of unpleasantness because the other tourist is very rude and unfriendly.

These instances are known as tourist emotions which according to Kastenholz et al. (2013), explain that a relationship may exist between tourist interactions and tourist emotions. Hosany et al. (2015) defined emotions as a series of intense feelings related to something specific that can contribute to behavioural intentions. Palau-Saumell et al. (2012) also emphasized that tourist emotions is an important factor in visits to heritage sites and Gnoth (1997) recognized emotions as a predictor for future behaviour and this is relatively important in the context of tourism destinations.

Previous studies have shown that emotions are related to both satisfaction and loyalty (Babin, Lee, Kim & Griffin, 2005; Prayag et al., 2013; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007). The study by Prayag et al. (2013), postulated that the emotions of joy, love and positive surprise have a positive influence on satisfaction while unpleasantness has a negative influence on the satisfaction of tourists at Petra, Jordan. The findings also discovered that emotions have a direct influence on behavioural intentions. This means that if tourists have positive emotions during their visit to cultural heritage sites, they will most likely develop positive destination loyalty, but if tourists have negative emotions during their visit, this will lead to negative destination loyalty. Hence, it was hypothesized that:

**H6: Tourist emotions positively influence destination loyalty.**

The role of satisfaction as a mediator has been investigated frequently by researchers in the field of tourism. Studies have identified that satisfaction mediates the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty (Kim et al., 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Wu & Li, 2014). Previous studies in Malaysia (Maghsoodi et al., 2016; Mohamad et al., 2014), in another cultural heritage site in China (Su et al.,



2017) and other destinations (Albaity & Melhem., 2017; Assaker et al., 2015; Song, Su, & Li, 2013; Wang et al., 2017) have also established satisfaction as a mediator between destination image and destination loyalty. Satisfaction has also been found to be different between tourists who are familiar with a destination (repeat tourists) and non-repeat tourists, and that destination loyalty also differs between these two groups of tourists (Kozak et al. 2004). This means that if destination image and destination familiarity influences satisfaction, they will lead to destination loyalty. Thus, it was hypothesized that:

**H7a: Satisfaction mediates the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty.**

**H7b: Satisfaction mediates the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty.**

Satisfaction was also found to mediate the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012). More recent literature also found that satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive and negative emotions and intention to recommend (Hosany S., Prayag, Van Der Veen, Huang, & Deesilatham, 2016). Kolar and Zabkar (2007) found satisfaction and loyalty to be positively related to perceived authenticity. Furthermore, Huang and Hsu (2010) identified that tourist interactions and satisfaction have positive relationship and suggested that loyalty should be added as a consequence. This implies that if perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions influence satisfaction, they will lead to destination loyalty. It was therefore hypothesized that:

**H7c: Satisfaction mediates the relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty.**

**H7d: Satisfaction mediates the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty.**

**H7e: Satisfaction mediates the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty.**

Prayag (2012) highlighted that when investigating on the socio-demographic characteristics of tourists, it will allow destination managers and marketers to develop tourism products and services to cater to the needs of tourists. Moreover, an understanding of tourist characteristics was the focal point for the marketing of cultural heritage destinations (Gaffar et al., 2011). Teo et al. (2014) identified differences in behaviour between local and international tourists. Gaffar et al. (2011) also indicated differences in satisfaction of tourists at heritage sites in Indonesia and Thailand. Kim and Brown (2012) were able to determine that length of stay had a positive impact on satisfaction and likelihood of future behaviour of tourists while Mendes et al. (2010) explored age, nationality and education as moderators between the satisfaction and loyalty relationship. The results showed that these tourist characteristics moderated the satisfaction and loyalty constructs. Diamantopoulos et al., (2003) used the socio-demographics variables of gender, age, marital status, number of children and education to profile green consumers. Hence, it was postulated that the level of destination loyalty and satisfaction of tourists towards cultural heritage sites will be different based on tourist characteristics. This led to the following hypotheses:

**H8a: Age moderates the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.**

**H8b: Gender moderates the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.**

**H8c: Nationality moderates the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.**

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Most tourism research is found within the applied research area (Jennings, 2010).

Similarly, this study is based on applied research where the findings can be put to use by destination managers and marketers of cultural heritage sites. Applied research covers a few types of research design; exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, causal, comparative, evaluative and predictive. For the purpose of this study, a causal research design was adopted as its main purpose was to test the causal relationship between all the variables in the research framework presented in the previous chapter. Causal research is usually linked to quantitative methodology because it involves the development of hypotheses for testing the relationship between two or more variables (Jennings, 2010). Therefore, this study adopted the quantitative research approach meant for testing objective theories by investigating the relationship between variables, and any data collected can be analyzed using statistical techniques (Creswell, 2014).

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Quantitative research approach has been claimed to have arisen from the positivism or postpositivism paradigm. In social research, positivism has been defined as an epistemological position that believes in applying methods from the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond (Bryman, 2012). Positivism has also been



viewed as a paradigm that is guided by scientific rules which explain the behaviour of certain phenomenon through causal relationships (Jennings, 2010). Positivism was challenged as being too scientific as it focuses on the absolute truth of knowledge and hence the postpositivism worldview was formed (Creswell, 2014).

Postpositivism emphasizes on determining the causes of outcomes and usually starts off with a theory, and then data is collected to test the theory. This is mostly done in an objective manner. The postpositivist still believes in the truth but not fully as the claims of knowledge may not be the absolute truth of knowledge when it comes to studies relating to human behaviour (Creswell, 2014; Jennings, 2010). This paradigm is based on a deductive approach and primarily uses a quantitative approach where data can be statistically analyzed and findings can be generalized to other tourism behaviours, events or phenomena (Jennings, 2010).

As this study used a quantitative research approach that stems from the postpositivism paradigm, a cross-sectional design was used to collect quantitative data at a single point in time. This study employed a survey method as it provided a quantitative explanation of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by generalizing the studies based on the sample (Creswell, 2014). The cross-sectional survey focused on the use of interviewer-completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was designed based on a structured format with sections that covered demographic data of respondents as well as scale items for every construct in framework. This study was based on an individual unit of analysis as it focused on tourists at cultural heritage sites.

### **3.5 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF VARIABLES**

Destination loyalty was operationalized as behavioural (intention to revisit the same site), attitudinal (willingness to recommend) and experiential loyalty (intention to revisit other cultural heritage sites). Intention to revisit means the tourist has an intention to come back to the same cultural heritage site for future visits. Willingness to recommend refers to tourists having an intention to tell their family, friends or others about the cultural sites that they have visited and to recommend them to visit the sites. Experiential loyalty was a term introduced by McKercher et al. (2012) where it refers to tourists who are loyal to certain holiday styles. This loyalty was operationalized as intention to revisit other cultural heritage sites, as tourists can still display loyalty to destinations that have cultural heritage elements.

Satisfaction was explored as a determinant as well as a mediator in this study. Satisfaction was operationalized as the overall satisfaction of the experiences (Wu & Li, 2014) from visiting cultural heritage sites. It is conceptualized that overall satisfaction consisted of both cognitive (perceived performance) and affective (experiential satisfaction) states. Perceived performance means that satisfaction was measured by the travel experiences of the tourist regardless of any prior expectations before travel, that is, that satisfaction was obtained based on the tourist's perceived performance of the cultural heritage site. Experiential satisfaction was the overall evaluation of the experiences of the visit which relates more to the emotional feelings of tourists towards the destination experience.

The other determinants of destination loyalty included in this study were destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist

emotions. The first factor was destination image and it was operationalized as the overall impression that tourists have of a destination, which can include their beliefs and values toward a certain place (Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015). This means that destination image in this study referred to the overall impression that the tourist forms during his/her visit to cultural heritage sites. The second factor was destination familiarity and it was operationalized as experiential familiarity and informational familiarity (Baloglu, 2001). Experiential familiarity refers to tourists being familiar with the cultural heritage site because of a previous visit to the site. Informational familiarity is based on the tourist being familiar with the cultural heritage site because of exposure to information relating to the sites that can be obtained from brochures, websites, travel agencies, guide books, stories from family and friends and other relevant sources.

The third factor was perceived authenticity and it is operationalized as both object-based authenticity and existential authenticity. Object-based authenticity refers to toured objects such as historical ruins, buildings, museums and other cultural heritage sites that are perceived to be authentic by tourists. Existential authenticity relates to tourists personal feelings toward the activities that they are involved in which they perceive to be authentic (Wang, 1999). These activities at cultural heritage sites can range from batik paintings, taking part in religious celebrations or festivals and other potential activities in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang.

The fourth factor was tourist interactions which relate to interpersonal interactions. Tourist interactions was operationalized as both interactions that consist of interactions between tourists with other tourists and interactions between tourists with



locals at cultural heritage sites. Tourist-to-tourist interactions cover both intragroup (acquaintances who traveled with the tourist) and intergroup interactions (other tourists whom the tourist only met during the trip) (Pearce, 2005). The fifth factor was tourist emotions and this was defined as the intense feelings that are linked with a destination, and in this study it was operationalized as emotions of joy, love and positive surprise (Prayag et al., 2013) as well as unpleasantness (Hosany & Prayag, 2013).

Tourist characteristics was hypothesized as the moderator in this study and was operationalized as the socio-demographics of the tourists. The variables that were measured were nationality, age and gender.

A summary of all variables and their operational definitions are presented in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1  
*Summary of Operational Definitions of Variables*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Operational Definitions</b>
Destination Loyalty	Behavioural, attitudinal and experiential.
Satisfaction	Overall satisfaction.
Destination Image	Overall impression that tourists form during their visit to cultural heritage sites.
Destination Familiarity	Experiential familiarity, informational familiarity.
Perceived Authenticity	Object-based authenticity, existential authenticity.
Tourist Interactions	Intragroup interactions, intergroup interactions, interactions with locals.
Tourist Emotions	Joy, love, positive surprise, unpleasantness.
Tourist Characteristics	Nationality, age, gender.

### **3.6 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES**

In measuring most of the variables for this study, a five-point Likert Scale was used where respondents indicated the degree of agreement to the statements measuring each variable. The Likert scale was used because it is the most common rating scale within tourism research especially in destination loyalty models such as those by Yoon and Uysal (2005). There is no specific indication of the number of points on a rating scale, but it usually will not exceed 10 points as anything more would overburden the respondent. With a five point scale, there are still three useable points if the respondents exclude the end points (Bordens, 2011).

The scale items used to measure the constructs in this study have been adapted from existing instruments that were used in the context of tourism as well as cultural heritage tourism. The selection of the scale items for the instrument were carefully selected based on the operationalization of the construct, suitability to the context of study, and the reliability of the items. Based on the selection, 72 items were adapted and used in the instrument for the measurement of this study.

#### **3.6.1 Destination Loyalty**

The scale items used to measure destination loyalty were adapted from Sun et al. (2013), Su et al. (2014) and Wu and Li (2014). Additionally, two items adapted from McKercher et al.'s (2012) concept of experiential loyalty were also proposed as part of the scale items. Based on previous studies by Yoon and Uysal (2005) and Chen and Chen (2010), only two items were used in measuring destination loyalty. However, for this study, 12 items were used for the measurement of the destination loyalty construct where five items measured behavioural, five items measured

attitudinal and two items measured experiential aspects. Using all these three indicators enabled as close a measurement of destination loyalty as possible because Velazquez e al. (2011) suggested using both behavioural and attitudinal indicators for better measure of the true nature of loyalty. A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. The listing of each scale item is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2  
*Scale Items for Measuring Destination Loyalty*

Scale Items		Source
<b>Behavioural Loyalty</b>		
1.	I will revisit this cultural heritage site.	Sun et al. (2013)
2.	I will probably revisit this cultural heritage site in two years.	Sun et al. (2013)
3.	If I could, I would visit this cultural heritage site again.	Wu and Li (2014)
4.	I intend to revisit this cultural heritage site again.	Su et al. (2014)
5.	It is very likely that I will revisit this cultural heritage site in the future.	Su et al. (2014)
<b>Attitudinal Loyalty</b>		
6.	I would recommend this cultural heritage site to other people.	Sun et al. (2013), Wu and Li (2014)
7.	I would positively recommend this cultural heritage site to other people.	Su et al. (2014)
8.	I would recommend this cultural heritage site to those who are planning for heritage travel.	Su et al. (2014)
9.	I will speak highly of this cultural heritage site to my friends and relatives.	Wu and Li (2014)
10.	I will always say positive things about this cultural heritage site to other people.	Wu and Li (2014)



Table 3.2 (Continued)

	Scale Items	Source
<b>Experiential Loyalty</b>		
11.	I intend to visit other sites in Malaysia that provide cultural heritage experiences.	McKercher et al. (2012)
12.	For my next holiday, I will choose a destination that has cultural heritage experiences.	McKercher et al. (2012)

### 3.6.2 Satisfaction

Satisfaction was measured as overall satisfaction consisting of both cognitive and affective items as the overall satisfaction measurement. A total of seven scale items was used for measuring satisfaction with two items from Bosque and Martin (2008), two items from Sun et al. (2013), one item from Su et al. (2014) and two items from Wu and Li (2014). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. The listing of all seven scale items are provided in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3  
*Scale Items for Measuring Satisfaction*

	Scale Items	Source
1.	Visiting this cultural heritage site was a wonderful experience.	Sun et al. (2013)
2.	I have really enjoyed the visit to this cultural heritage site.	Bosque and Martin (2008)
3.	I really like this trip to this cultural heritage site.	Wu and Li (2014)
4.	This cultural heritage site is exactly what I needed.	Bosque and Martin (2008)
5.	It is worthwhile to be at this cultural heritage site.	Wu and Li (2014)

Table 3.3 (Continued)

	Scale Items	Source
6.	This cultural heritage site is one of the best destinations that I have ever visited.	Sun et al. (2013)
7.	Overall, I am satisfied with my visit to this cultural heritage site.	Su et al. (2014)

### 3.6.3 Destination Image

Similar to the satisfaction measurement, destination image was measured as the overall impression that the tourist has of the cultural heritage site. There were eight scale items used to measure destination image. One scale item was adapted from McDowall (2010), two scale items were from Kastenholtz et al. (2013), three scale items were from Su et al. (2014) and two scale items were from Wu and Li (2014). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. Table 3.4 provides the details of all the seven scale items that were used.

Table 3.4  
*Scale Items for Measuring Destination Image*

	Scale Items	Source
1.	This cultural heritage site has beautiful architectural buildings and historical sites.	McDowall (2010)
2.	This cultural heritage site is famous for its long history and reputation.	Wu and Li (2014)
3.	This cultural heritage site reflects the historical colonial atmosphere and cultural blend.	Wu and Li (2014)
4.	This cultural heritage site has a good image as a tourist destination.	Su et al. (2014)

Table 3.4 (Continued)

5.	This cultural heritage site left me with a profound and good impression.	Su et al. (2014)
6.	I believe that this cultural heritage site has a better image than other competitive destinations.	Su et al. (2014)
7.	The architectural buildings and historical sites in this cultural heritage site are well maintained.	Kastenholz et al. (2013)
8.	This cultural heritage site reflects the cultural diversity aspects of the locals.	Kastenholz et al. (2013)

### 3.6.4 Destination Familiarity

Destination familiarity was measured by eight scale items that covered both experiential familiarity and informational familiarity. Two scale items were adapted from Horng et al. (2012), three scales items were from Sun et al. (2013) and three scale items were from Chen and Lin (2012). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. The description of all eight scale items are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

#### *Scale Items for Measuring Destination Familiarity*

	Scale Items	Source
<b>g Experiential Familiarity</b>		
1.	I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than my acquaintances.	Sun et al. (2013)
2.	I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than my friends.	Sun e al. (2013)
3.	I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than those who travel frequently.	Sun et al. (2013)
4.	I am very familiar with information on this cultural herita e site.	Horng et al. (2012)



Table 3.5 (Continued)

Scale Items		Source
<b>Informational Familiarity</b>		
5.	I often spend time gathering information about this cultural heritage site.	Horng et al. (2012)
6.	I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the information obtained from travel guide books, magazines, travel brochures and the Internet.	Chen and Lin (2012)
7.	I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the stories told by friends and relatives in Malaysia.	Chen and Lin (2012)
8.	I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the stories told by friends and relatives who have been to Malaysia.	Chen and Lin (2012)

### 3.6.5 Perceived Authenticity

Perceived authenticity is a complicated construct to conceptualize and in this study it was measured as object-based authenticity and existential authenticity. Ten scale items were adapted mainly from Kolar and Zabkar (2010) with one item from Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. The listing of the items is provided in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

*Scale Items for Measuring Perceived Authenticity*

Scale Items		Source
<b>Object-based Authenticity</b>		
1.	I feel that this cultural heritage site represents the ways of life of the locals.	Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011)
2.	I like the uniqueness of the interior design of the historical buildings.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)

Table 3.6 (Continued)

	Scale Items	Source
<b>Existential Authenticity</b>		
3.	The overall architecture and impressions of the buildings inspired me.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
4.	I like the history about this cultural heritage site and found it interesting.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
5.	I like the way this cultural heritage site blends with its surroundings.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
6.	I like the special arrangements, events and celebrations connected to this cultural heritage site.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
7.	This visit provided a thorough insight into the historical era of this cultural heritage site.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
8.	During the visit, I felt the related history about this cultural heritage site.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
9.	I enjoyed the unique religious and spiritual experience.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)
10.	I felt connected with the history of this cultural heritage site.	Kolar and Zabkar (2010)

### 3.6.6 Tourist Interactions

Tourist interaction was measured based on tourist-to-tourist interactions and interactions with the locals. There were eight scale items used to measure tourist interactions. Three items were adapted from Huang and Hsu (2010), two items were from Wu (2007) and three items were from Teye, Sonmez, and Sirakaya (2002). Out of these eight items, five items measured tourist-to-tourist interactions while three items measured interactions with locals. A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. Table 3.7 presents the listing of all scale items used.

Table 3.7  
*Scale Items for Measuring Tourist Interactions*

Scale Items		Source
<b>Tourist-to-Tourist Interactions</b>		
1.	It was comfortable to be taking part in the activities at this cultural heritage site with my acquaintances.	Huang and Hsu (2010)
2.	The other tourists at this cultural heritage site were friendly.	Huang and Hsu (2010)
3.	It was interesting to be sharing the history of this cultural heritage site.	Huang and Hsu (2010)
4.	I get to socialize with the other tourists at this cultural heritage site.	Wu (2007)
5.	The other tourists at this cultural heritage site started conversation with me.	Wu (2007)
<b>Tourist-to-Local Interactions</b>		
6.	I have developed friendship with the locals.	Teye et al. (2002)
7.	I enjoy interacting with the locals.	Teye et al. (2002)
8.	My interactions with the locals are positive and useful.	Teye et al. (2002)

### 3.6.7 Tourist Emotions

The scale to measure tourist emotions was adopted from Prayag et al. (2013). The scale items consisted of 19 items where five items measured joy, five items measured love, five items measured positive surprise and four items measured unpleasantness. This scale was based on an extension of the Destination Emotion Scale (DES) by Hosany and Gilbert (2010) that had 15 items measuring joy, love and positive surprise but combined four items of unpleasantness from Hosany and Prayag's (2013) study. For this study, the negative items of unpleasantness were also included in the measurement of tourist emotions, as negative emotions will help in understanding



tourist experiences (Faullant et al., 2011). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) was used to measure the items. All 19 items are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8  
*Scale Items for Measuring Tourist Emotions*

Scale Items	Source
<b>Joy</b>	
1. I feel a sense of Joy towards this cultural heritage site.	Prayag et al. (2013)
2. I feel a sense of Pleasure towards this cultural heritage site.	
3. I feel Cheerful towards this cultural heritage site.	
4. I feel a sense of Delight towards this cultural heritage site.	
5. I feel a sense of Enthusiasm towards this cultural heritage site.	
<b>Love</b>	
6. I feel a sense of Affection towards this cultural heritage site.	Prayag et al. (2013)
7. I feel a sense of Love towards this cultural heritage site.	
8. I feel a sense of tenderness towards this cultural heritage site.	
9. I feel Warm-hearted towards this cultural heritage site.	
10. I feel a sense of Caring towards this cultural heritage site.	
<b>Pleasant Surprise</b>	
11. I feel Fascinated about this cultural heritage site.	Prayag et al. (2013)
12. I feel a sense of Inspiration towards this cultural heritage site.	
13. I feel a sense of Surprise towards this cultural heritage site.	

Table 3.8 (Continued)

	Scale Items	Source
	<b>Pleasant Surprise</b>	
14.	I feel a sense of Astonishment towards this cultural heritage site.	Prayag et al. (2013)
15.	I feel a sense of Amazement towards this cultural heritage site.	

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**Unpleasantness**

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- |     |   |                      |
|-----|---|----------------------|
| 16. | I feel a sense of Regret towards this cultural heritage site.         |                      |
| 17. | I feel a sense of Unhappiness towards this cultural heritage site.    |                      |
| 18. | I feel a sense of Disappointment towards this cultural heritage site. | Prayag et al. (2013) |
| 19. | I feel a sense of Displeasure towards this cultural heritage site.    |                      |

### 3.6.8 Tourist Characteristics

The tourist characteristics measured were nationality, age and gender. Nationality was left as an open-ended question to allow for the country of origin of respondents while age and gender were in closed-ended questions measured at nominal levels. Age was divided into five age groups starting from 18 years old to 23 years old as the first age group and above 50 years old as the last age group and gender was divided to male and female (Refer to Appendix A).

### **3.7 SAMPLING**

#### **3.7.1 Study Population and Sample**

The population of this study were all international tourists visiting cultural heritage sites in Malaysia and the targeted sample were those at various cultural heritage attractions in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang during the two months survey period. These two sites (cities) were selected because they are listed in the UNESCO WHS under the historic cities category. In addition, these two sites were the ones that received the highest tourist arrivals in Malaysia in 2014. Furthermore, these two sites have been promoted frequently as cultural heritage sites in Tourism Malaysia's website. Therefore, a sample of the tourists from these two sites, would provide a fairly good representation of the population.

#### **3.7.2 Sampling Approach**

In tourism studies, a sampling frame is not easy to obtain as the number of tourists arriving at a destination is not fixed and a list of all tourists at a destination may not be available. For this study, the sampling frame was created from a list of cultural heritage attractions in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang that were promoted in Tourism Malaysia's website. The sampling frame is shown in Table 3.9, where there are ten cultural heritage sites in Penang and seven cultural heritage sites in Melaka. These sites are also frequently highlighted in other online sites such as the Lonely Planet, Trip Advisor and other travel guide books.



Table 3.9

*Sampling Frame*

No.	Sites
<b>Listing of Cultural Heritage Sites in Penang</b>	
1	Cheong Fatt Sze Mansion
2	Kek Lok Si Temple
3	Fort Cornwallis
4	Khoo Kongsi
5	1 Pinang Peranakan Mansion
6	War Museum
7	Penang Museum
8	P. Ramlee's House
9	Chinatown
10	Little India
<b>Listing of Cultural Heritage Sites in Melaka</b>	
	Porta de Santiago (A'Famosa)
2	Stadthuys
3	Baba & Nyonya Heritage Museum
4	Melaka Sultanate Palace
5	Jonker Street
6	Maritime Museum
7	Ti Fang Fu Temple

**Listing of Cultural Heritage Sites in Penang**

- 1 Cheong Fatt Sze Mansion
- 2 Kek Lok Si Temple
- 3 Fort Cornwallis
- 4 Khoo Kongsi
- 5 1 Pinang Peranakan Mansion
- 6 War Museum
- 7 Penang Museum
- 8 P. Ramlee's House
- 9 Chinatown
- 10 Little India

**Listing of Cultural Heritage Sites in Melaka**

- Porta de Santiago (A'Famosa)
- 2 Stadthuys
- 3 Baba & Nyonya Heritage Museum
- 4 Melaka Sultanate Palace
- 5 Jonker Street
- 6 Maritime Museum
- 7 Ti Fang Fu Temple

A type of cluster sampling known as the two-stage area sampling was adopted for this study. Based on the sampling frame that consisted of the cultural heritage attractions (clusters) in both sites, a simple random sampling method was used to identify two clusters from each city for sampling. Once the clusters had been identified, a systematic random sampling was used at the site to obtain the samples. As the actual population size of tourists in the two cities was not available, 10 was suggested as the

skip interval because it provided sufficient time for the completion of the questionnaire before the next tourist was approached. This means that every 10<sup>th</sup> tourist at the cluster area was approached for the survey. The skip interval of 10 is based on the studies conducted by Sun et al. (2013) and Mohamad et al. (2014).

The combination of cluster with systematic sampling is a good approach as cluster sampling is easy to implement and is cost-effective while systematic sampling can increase the representativeness of a population (Malhotra, 2012). This approach to a two-stage cluster sampling was applied by Chi and Qu (2008) and Eusébio and Vieira (2013). Therefore, this approach is suitable for use within the tourism context. Moreover, as it is difficult to obtain accurate data with regard to international tourist arrivals during the survey period, this approach allowed samples to be collected within a faster timeline.

### 3.7.3 Sample Size

In estimating the sample size for this study, the confidence interval approach was applied. This approach is used by most marketing researchers and national opinion polling companies (Burns & Bush, 2014) and is therefore suitable for conducting this study. The standard sample size formula by Burns and Bush (2014) is provided as follows:

$$n = \frac{z^2 (pq)}{e^2} = \frac{1.96^2 (0.5*0.5)}{0.05^2}$$

$$= \frac{3.8416 (0.25)}{0.0025}$$

$$= 385$$

Where

$n$  = the sample size

$z$  = standard error associated with the chosen level of confidence (95% confidence level where  $z$  value= 1.96)

$p$  = estimated percent of variability in the population (50%)

$q = 100 - p$

$e$  = acceptable margin of sample error ( $\pm 5\%$  error)

The variability in the population was unknown and therefore it was estimated at the maximum of 50%. This assumption was made on the basis that there would be extreme differences in sample responses.

The sample size of 385 was increased further to account for non-responses and non-useables. Since an onsite survey was proposed as the data collection method, the response rate is usually higher and it was estimated at 70% as based on previous research where response rates ranged from 57.4% to 86.9% (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Sun et al., 2013; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015). This means that 20% of the non-response rate should be accounted for in the sample size. Another 10% was also accounted for as non-useable questionnaires. Therefore, the total sample size was 500 ( $385 \times 1.3$ ) and this was the targeted number of respondents for the survey. As the survey was conducted in two cities, and considering that the total tourist arrivals to Penang in 2014 is about 60% of the total arrivals for the two cities, 300 samples were proposed for Penang and 200 samples for Melaka.



Although the interval approach was used to estimate the sample size, this study also referred to Cohen's (1992) rule of thumb in determining sample size. This study is based on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM), where sample size recommendations are built on the properties of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression. Therefore, the statistical power of analyses for multiple regression models provided by Cohen (1992) was a suitable reference for sample size. Based on Cohen's sample size recommendations for PLS-SEM for a statistical power of 80%, a minimum of 179 sample size were needed for a maximum of six arrows pointing at a construct (destination loyalty) with  $R^2$  of 0.10 at 1% probability error. Therefore, the targeted 500 sample size was sufficient to provide the statistical power of analysis for the current study.

### **3.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

#### **3.8.1 Pre-Test and Pilot Study**

Before the start of actual data collection, pre-testing and a pilot study were conducted to check the validity and reliability of the instrument. Pre-testing was conducted to check if the instrument was easy to understand and if the research instrument in its entirety functioned well (Bryman, 2012). Although the scale items for this study's instrument were adopted from existing studies, face validity still needed to be established to ensure the items reflected the content of the construct (Bryman, 2012). In order to establish face validity, two tourism experts were asked to review the questionnaire. There were no major comments on the scale items and only minor changes were made to the instrument where the questions on tourist characteristics were rearranged and added into the last section of the instrument.

In addition to the review of the instrument by key experts, an interviewer-completed onsite survey was done on three international tourists to identify any potential difficulties for the tourists in answering the questionnaire. At the same time, this allowed the researcher to determine the amount of time needed to complete the interview. Based on the observation, the conduct of one questionnaire needs approximately 15 minutes and the tourists did not show any difficulty in understanding the questions. Therefore, the final draft of the questionnaire was used for the pilot study.

The pilot study on 50 tourists in Melaka was conducted to check on the reliability of the instrument. 50 tourists were targeted because this was the minimum required to determine the effectiveness of the tool and its implementation, and to test the analytical ability of the instrument (Jennings, 2010). Once the pilot study was completed, the reliability of the scale items (indicators) was examined to check for internal consistency.

A reliability test allowed for the identification of Cronbach's Alpha value to determine the reliability of the scale items. Any value above 0.7 is a good level of reliability for academic based research (Nunnally, 1978). Based on the reliability scores of the pilot test shown in Table 3.10, all values were above 0.8. This indicated that the scale items established internal consistency and the instrument is reliable. Therefore, no further changes were needed on the instrument and it was then used for actual field work.

Table 3.10

*Reliability of Final Instrument (Pilot Study)*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
DImage	8	0.874
DFamiliarity	8	0.862
PAuthenticity	10	0.884
TInteractions	8	0.836
TEmotions	19	0.900
Satisfaction	7	0.880
DLoyalty	12	0.942

**3.8.2 Data Collection**

For conducting both the pilot study and actual field work, an interviewer-completed onsite survey was implemented as the data collection method. During the onsite survey, interviewers were able to obtain immediate feedback from the respondents if there were any instructions or questions that they were not sure of. In the context of dealing with tourists, this method is useful as some tourists may not be well versed in English and the interviewer can explain the questions in more in detail if there are any language barriers. Moreover, the interviewer can increase the response rate (Jennings, 2010) compared to self-administered surveys because they can motivate tourists to complete the survey. This can also ensure that every question in the questionnaire will be completed, thus reducing the number of non-useable questionnaires.

From earlier explanations on the use of sampling techniques, a two-stage cluster sampling method was adopted. A list of cultural heritage attractions in Melaka and Penang was developed. The selection of these sites was based on those highlighted in Tourism Malaysia's website and they are usually the more popular attractions that are also listed in travel guide books and travel brochures. When the list was compiled,



each attraction was assigned a unique number. There were two sampling frames, one for Melaka and one for Penang. These numbers were written on small pieces of paper which were folded with the numbers for Melaka mixed in one box and numbers for Penang in another box. First, one random piece of paper from the Melaka box was drawn to identify which attraction site in Melaka was the area for sampling. This process was repeated for Penang in order to have a total of two sampling areas (one from each city). The final sampling areas were Cheong Fatt Sze Mansion, Penang and A' Famosa, Melaka. Two interviewers were proposed for each sampling area to ensure a shorter time period for data collection. This was due to the time and cost factors, where data needed to be collected within the shortest possible time.

The interviewers were trained on how to approach tourists to ensure a higher response rate and to check that tourists fully understood the purpose of the survey. The training session was also useful for providing explanations for every question to ensure that interviewers were familiar with the questionnaire and were able to explain them to tourists without changing the meaning of the questions. Explanation for the random method for selecting tourists to be surveyed was also given to ensure that interviewers use the systematic sampling approach.

Interviewers were students who were studying in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) and Multimedia University (MMU) Melaka. Ten enumerators in Penang and six enumerators in Melaka were trained by the author. During the first week, the author was at Penang to observe the conduct of the data collection and to ensure proper procedure of the systematic sampling approach was adopted. Then, the following

week, the author repeated the same for Melaka. The enumerators were paid RM2 per questionnaire completed.

Interviewers were required to be at the selected areas from 10am till 7pm daily based on the first stage of the cluster sampling. Then for the second stage, interviewers started by randomly approaching the first tourist and then subsequently every 10<sup>th</sup> tourist after that. This process continued until the required sample size was collected. The data collection took approximately two months to complete instead of the original target of one month. This was due to external factors such as the weather where rain made it impossible to conduct the survey. Data collection was proposed to be done daily to capture both the weekday and weekend tourists. Based on the estimated sample size of 500 discussed earlier, 300 samples were targeted for Penang and 200 samples were targeted for Melaka. In estimating the number of tourists to approach at each site for each day, the total sample size for each site is divided by 30 days. Therefore, for Penang, the average number of tourists to approach each day was about 10 ( $300/30$ ) and about 6 ( $200/30$ ) for Melaka. A key chain that reflected the site was provided as a souvenir to the respondents.

### **3.9 TECHNIQUES OF DATA ANALYSIS**

Several tools and techniques were used to test the hypothesis and model for this study. SPSS and SmartPLS software were used in this study as descriptive statistics and Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was proposed as the techniques for data analysis. When data was collected for the actual study, they were keyed into SPSS based on the predetermined coding and data computation. The

completed dataset in SPSS was ready for data analysis and converted into a comma-separated values (csv) file for use in SmartPLS. Before the data analysis was conducted, several data screening measures were taken, and this is discussed further in Chapter 4. Another important area of concern that was also reviewed before data analysis is the common method bias.

### **3.9.1 Common Method Bias**

This study was collected from a single source and there may be possibility of the occurrence of common method bias. Common method bias or Common Method Variance (CMV) is gaining interest in the behavioural sciences as well as the hospitality research (Min, Park, & Kim, 2016). CMV relates to the variance caused by the measurement method rather than the constructs the measures represents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method bias can influence the item reliability and validity as well as the covariance between latent constructs (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). Thus, it is important to look at the causes of CMV and how to overcome CMV.

Based on literature, there are various possible causes of CMV: a) having a common rater; b) the way in which items are presented to the respondents; c) the context in which items are placed in a questionnaire; and d) how, where and when measures are obtained (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Min et al. (2016) also included individual differences as a potential source of CMV. As highlighted earlier, this study may have a possibility of CMV because the measures were collected from a single source or a common rater. One procedural remedy for this is to obtain measures from different sources but for this study it was not possible because the focus of the study is to



obtain the views of international tourists. However, there were other procedural remedies that were considered in the research design to overcome CMV. As recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), psychological separation was created between the moderator, mediator, independent and dependent variable, as a procedural remedy to reduce the occurrence of common method bias. The items that measures the independent variable was on a different page as the dependent variable, mediator and moderator. Moreover, this study was based on interviewer completed questionnaire, which helps to provide explanation to respondents to reduce any ambiguous or unfamiliar terms. The scale items did not have any double-barrelled questions and the questionnaire was given to tourism experts to review to ensure clarity and concise language is used. In addition, the measures were obtained from two separate locations in Melaka and Penang.

Besides procedural remedies, statistical approaches to assess CMV were also considered for this study. One common approach is the Harman's single factor test that mainly focuses on identifying if there is one factor that accounts for majority of the variance. This approach loads all items from every construct into an exploratory factor analysis. If there is a factor that has eigenvalue that explains more than 50% of the variance among the variables, then it can be considered that there is issue with CMV. Although Harman's single factor test is used extensively, it is not controlling for method variance and its effectiveness is questionable (Min et al., 2016). Therefore, Kock and Lynn (2012) proposed the full collinearity test that is more effective in assessing CMV. Based on the full collinearity test, it assesses the vertical and lateral collinearity by observing the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for all latent variables (Kock & Gaskins, 2014; Kock & Lynn, 2012). It was suggested that any VIF values

that is equal or lower than 3.3 can be considered to be free from common method bias (Kock, 2015). Both the Harman's single factor test and full collinearity test were used to assess CMV in this study.

### **3.9.2 Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were generated to identify the frequencies for tourist characteristics. This allowed for checking of any missing values in the dataset. The frequency analysis of the socio-demographic data allowed for a description of the profile of tourists who took part in the survey as it helps in revealing the general pattern of responses (Burns & Bush, 2014).

### **3.9.3 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a second-generation technique that can examine a series of dependent relationships at the same time and it is a combination of factor and multivariate analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). SEM was introduced to overcome the weakness of first-generation techniques as SEM allows researchers to measure unobservable variables indirectly through indicator variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). The use of SEM in tourism research has been growing in the past decade and has been considered an important tool in the development of better quality tourism research (Nunkoo, & Ramkissoon, 2012). There are two approaches to SEM, namely the covariance-based approach (CB-SEM) and the variance based approach (PLS-SEM) (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). CB-SEM focuses more on confirmation of theories by determining how closely the proposed theoretical model can estimate the covariance matrix for a sample data set (Hair et al. 2014). Although CB-SEM has been used extensively in tourism research, there are a

set of assumptions that the model needs to fulfil, such as the multivariate normality of data and minimum sample size (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011), in order for this technique to be used. Due to these restrictions, an alternative to CB-SEM is PLS-SEM which provides more flexibility in modelling different phenomena particularly in the tourism field when the assumptions of CB-SEM cannot be met (Valle & Assaker, 2015).

#### **3.9.4 Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)**

As an alternative to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM, also known as PLS Path Modelling (Hair et al., 2014), is a variance-based approach that emphasizes prediction but at the same time lessen the focus on the demands of data and the specifications of relationships (Hair, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2012). PLS-SEM is a causal modelling approach that maximizes the explained variances of the endogenous constructs of the model (Hair et al., 2011; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2012). The use of PLS-SEM in tourism research has been gaining recognition in recent years but it is still limited when compared to its usage in other fields such as business, strategic management and management information systems (Valle & Assaker, 2015). The use of PLS-SEM in this study will further address the methodological gap in tourism research.

PLS-SEM was proposed because the objective of this study is more towards prediction than confirmation. As PLS-SEM is an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression-based method rather than a maximum likelihood (ML) method, PLS-SEM estimates coefficients that maximizes  $R^2$  values of the endogenous construct which provide the prediction objective of PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2014). The model of this study was also quite complex in nature with multiple scale items used in measuring



destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and destination loyalty. Due to the complexity of the proposed model, PLS-SEM was suitable because it could handle constructs with multi-item measures and complex models with many structural model relations (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). In addition, PLS-SEM has been used recently in loyalty and satisfaction research in tourism (Blazquez-Resino, Molina & Esteban-Talaya, 2013; Kim, Lee, Lee & Song, 2012; Song, van der Veen, Li & Chen, 2012;) as the researchers recognizes the flexibility of PLS-SEM in analysing complex models and the causal relationships among the constructs in the model. Moreover, more new contributions are needed in the use of PLS-SEM particularly in tourism research, where CB-SEM is preferred by tourism researchers (Assaker, Hallak, O'Connor, & Vinzi, 2013).

One main reason why PLS-SEM was suggested is due to the robust estimations of the structural model (Valle & Assaker, 2015) which can provide high levels of statistical power even with a small sample size (Hair et al., 2014). Moreover, the constructs' measurement properties are not as restrictive as for CB-SEM and PLS-SEM can handle extremely non-normal data (Hair et al., 2014). PLS-SEM has been found to work well with all types of variables including categorical variables (Reinartz, Haenlein & Henseler, 2009; Hair et al., 2012), and for this study, the moderating variable which is tourist characteristics is in categorical form. This justifies the use of PLS-SEM for this study. Hair et al., (2012) explained that there are three types of model characteristics in SEM studies; focused, unfocused and balanced. Focused model refers to the models that have many exogenous latent variables as compared to endogenous latent variables. Unfocused models on the other hand, refer to models that

have more endogenous latent variables and mediating effects than exogenous latent variables. Balanced models are those that are in between focused and unfocused. Focused and balanced models are more suitable in meeting PLS-SEM's prediction objective while unfocused models are more suitable for CB-SEM. For the current study, it is a focused study as there were five exogenous latent variables and two endogenous latent variables. Therefore, this is another justification for the use of PLS-SEM for this study. Another reason why PLS-SEM was selected is because PLS modelling can be used for both reflective and formative measurement models (Hair et al., 2014; Valle & Assaker, 2015).

In PLS-SEM, there are two components known as the measurement model and the structural model. The structural model is also commonly known as the inner model and the measurement model is referred to as the outer model. When applying PLS-SEM, the first stage assesses the measurement model and then only will the assessment of the structural model take place. These models are explained further in the next section.

### **3.9.5 Measurement Model (Outer Model)**

Measurement models exemplify the one directional predictive relationship between constructs and indicators (Hair et al, 2011). There are two types of measurement models that can be handled by PLS-SEM and they are the reflective and formative measurement models. In PLS-SEM, reflective measurement models are also known as Mode A and formative measurement models are called Mode B. Reflective measurement models specify that the latent constructs change the indicators whereas formative measurement models assume that indicators cause the construct (Hair et al.,

2014). Reflective indicators manifest when there are changes in the latent construct while any changes in the formative indicators will determine the changes in the latent constructs (Hair et al., 2011). In this study, there are both reflective and formative indicators because the integrative model was modelled based on a reflective-formative model. The reflective model consisted of satisfaction, destination image, experiential familiarity, informational familiarity, object-based authenticity, existential authenticity, tourist-to-tourist interactions, tourist-to-local interactions, joy, love, pleasant surprise, unpleasantness, attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and experiential loyalty. These are traits that explain the construct (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982) and the indicators represent the consequences of the construct (Rossiter, 2002). On the other hand, the second-order formative model consisted of destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty.

The evaluation of the reflective measurement model focused on examining the reliability and validity of the constructs (Valle & Assaker, 2015) and these evaluation methods are shown in Table 3.11. In terms of examining the reliability of the construct, the composite reliability and indicator reliability were considered. Composite reliability estimates the internal consistency of a construct (Hair et al., 2011) which prioritizes indicators based on their individual reliability (Hair et al., 2012). The composite reliability values of 0.70 to 0.90 were used as the point of reference for this study as it is regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For the indicator reliability, the magnitude of the outer loadings was observed as it looked into the correlation coefficients between the indicators and corresponding latent variable (Valle & Assaker, 2015). Indicator reliability was determined based on



the absolute standardized loading of the indicator and the value needed to be 0.70 or higher (Valle & Assaker, 2015). The indicator reliability was also considered in establishing convergent validity as the indicators' outer loadings provided information on how much of the indicator's variance was explained by the construct (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 3.11

*Evaluation of the Measurement Models*

Reflective Measurement Models

- Internal consistency reliability: Composite reliability > 0.70
- Indicator reliability: Indicator loadings > 0.70
- Convergent validity: The average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.50
- Discriminant validity: Cross loadings and AVE

Source: Adapted from Hair et al. (2011)

To examine the validity of the constructs, convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed. Convergent validity measures the level of connection between the indicators and the same construct to determine if the indicators represent the same construct (Valle & Assaker, 2015). In order to establish convergent validity, indicator reliability and the average variance extracted (AVE) were examined and the AVE value needed to be at least 0.50 or higher as this meant that the construct explained more than half of the variance of the indicator (Hair et al., 2011). Another assessment of validity is discriminant validity where the purpose is to assess the degree to which the indicators measuring a construct is different from the indicators measuring another construct. There were three methods used to measure discriminant validity for this study: cross loadings, Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt's (2015) heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations criterion. The assessment of cross loadings basically examines the indicators' loadings that are

suggests that the square root of AVE of each construct should be greater than the highest correlation with any other construct. This is because it is believed that a construct should share more variance with its associated indicators than with other constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The more recent method in measuring discriminant validity is HTMT ratio of correlations. This new criterion suggests that the HTMT values should be below the threshold of 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2017).

As highlighted earlier, this study has a second-order formative model. Formative models cannot apply reflective measure model evaluations and should follow other criteria (Hair et al., 2017). In evaluating formative models, the collinearity issues and significance of the formative indicators are assessed. In assessing for collinearity issues, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) should be examined. VIF values should be below the threshold of 5 (Hair et al., 2017) to indicate that there are no collinearity issues amongst the formative indicators. In addition to assessing collinearity issues, the significance of the outer weights of the formative indicators have to be assessed. If the formative indicators are significant, it means that the indicators truly contribute to forming the construct (Hair et al., 2017).

### **3.9.6 Structural Model (Inner Model)**

Once the measurement model had been assessed, the structural or inner model that describes the relationship between the constructs was gauged. There are generally two

types of constructs in structural models: exogenous and endogenous. Exogenous constructs or latent variables are variables that act as the independent variable while endogenous constructs or latent variables are often referred to as the dependent variables in the model (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, the exogenous latent variables were destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions while the endogenous latent variables were satisfaction and destination loyalty. Although the satisfaction construct was an endogenous variable, it played a dual role as both the independent and dependent variable. In order to evaluate the structural model for this study, several criteria were proposed as listed in Table 3.12. However, before assessing the structural model, collinearity assessment was conducted on each set of predictor constructs. The purpose was to examine if the level of collinearity between predictor constructs was significant or not. If it was significant, it meant that there was a high level of correlation between two or more indicators used in measuring the constructs, also called multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2014). In order to examine the level of collinearity, a variance inflation factor (VIF) was assessed. If the VIF value was five or higher then it meant that collinearity issue existed (Hair et al., 2011). If collinearity issues really exist, the structural model may have to be reviewed to remove constructs, merge constructs into one construct or develop higher-order constructs (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 3.12

*Evaluation of the Structural Model*

- Size and significance of path coefficients: standardized values,  $t$  value > critical value and standardized beta coefficients
- Coefficient of determination and effect size:  $R^2$  and  $f^2$  effect size
- Predictive relevance:  $Q^2$  and  $q^2$  effect size

Source: Adapted from Hair et al. (2014)



Testing the structural model, focused on assessing the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. In order to test these relationships, the individual path coefficients of the structural model were construed as the standardized beta coefficients of the ordinary least squares regressions (Hair et al., 2011). Standardized values of the path coefficients should range from -1 to +1. The closer the estimated path coefficients are to +1, the stronger the relationship while the closer the estimated path coefficients are to 0, the weaker the relationship (Hair et al., 2014). To test the significance of path coefficients, the standard error was identified through bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is a procedure where bootstrap samples or large subsamples are obtained from the original sample through resampling (Hair et al., 2014). The bootstrap standard error obtained through bootstrapping will generate the empirical  $t$  value which will provide information on the significance of the path coefficients. When the  $t$  value is greater than the critical value, then the coefficient is considered significant at the significance level of 5%. At the significance level of 5%, the critical value is 1.96 for a two-tailed test and this significance level was proposed because it is used in marketing studies (Hair et al., 2014).

Once the significance testing was done another primary evaluation criterion to test the structural model which is the coefficient of determination also known as the  $R^2$  value (Hair et al, 2011) was measured.  $R^2$  denotes the amount of explained variance of the endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2012) and it measures the predictive accuracy of the model by looking at the combined effects of the exogenous constructs on the endogenous constructs.  $R^2$  values that are higher (range from 0 to 1) indicate a higher level of predictive accuracy and for marketing studies with a focus on satisfaction and customer loyalty, such as the present study, it should have values of at least 0.75 (Hair

et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). However, there are other guides with lower thresholds as suggested by Chin (1998) where the values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 are substantial, moderate, and weak.

In addition to assessing the  $R^2$  values, this study also assessed the  $f^2$  effect size which is the change in the  $R^2$  value when a particular exogenous construct is removed from the model (Hair et al., 2014). The  $f^2$  effect size basically measures the impact of the exogenous construct that has been removed on the endogenous construct. Cohen (1998) suggested guidelines for measuring  $f^2$  effect size and the values were categorized as a small (0.02), medium (0.15) and large effect (0.35) of the exogenous construct on the endogenous construct.

Besides focusing on the predictive accuracy of the structural model, the predictive relevance of the model was also examined using Stone-Geisser's  $Q^2$  value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). Based on Stone-Geisser's  $Q^2$  value, it was suggested that to determine the model's capability to predict, the model should be able to sufficiently predict the indicators of the endogenous constructs respectively (Hair et al., 2011). In order to acquire the  $Q^2$  value, the blindfolding procedure was carried out where by it removes the data point in the indicators of the endogenous constructs and predicts the remaining parts of the data point (Hair et al., 2014). There are two approaches to calculating  $Q^2$  value, namely the cross-validated redundancy approach and cross-validated approach. The first approach uses data from a both structural and measurement model for prediction while the latter only uses the estimated endogenous construct scores to predict eliminated data points. Therefore, for this study, the cross-validated redundancy approach was proposed and when the  $Q^2$  value

for the endogenous construct was greater than zero, it showed predictive relevance. In addition to  $Q^2$  value, the assessment of the exogenous constructs' predictive relevance on the endogenous construct was measured using  $q^2$  effect size. The guidelines for the  $q^2$  effect size values are small (0.02), medium (0.15) and large (0.35) prediction relevance on the endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2014).

### 3.9.7 Mediator Analysis

When assessing the structural model, this study assessed the mediating or intervening effect of satisfaction on the relationship between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions on destination loyalty. Bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effect is performed to test the mediating effect because it provided higher statistical power than the Sobel test and it was more applicable for the use of PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017). Once the bootstrapping was conducted, the indirect effects of the exogenous construct on destination loyalty were reviewed to assess the significance of the indirect effects. If all the indirect effects were significant, then the significance of the direct effect should be compared in order to determine the mediating effect of satisfaction. The guidelines provided by Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) and Hair et al. (2017) can be used in determining the mediating effect of satisfaction. If both the direct and indirect effect were not significant, then it meant that there was no mediating effect. Similarly, if the direct effect was significant but the indirect effect was not significant, the mediating effect did not exist. On the other hand, if both direct and indirect effects were significant then it meant that there was partial mediation. However, if the direct effect was not significant but only the indirect effect was significant then it meant that full mediation exists.



### 3.9.8 Moderator Effects

Besides testing the mediating effect, this study also assessed the moderating effects of tourist characteristics on the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.

In order to test the moderator effects, the moderator which is in categorical form (nationality, age, gender) was used as a grouping variable to divide the data sets into subsamples. Age group was divided into young and old while nationality was divided into Asians and non-Asians. Then the multigroup analysis was conducted to test the moderator effects. The multigroup analysis focused on comparing the same model across each subsample (Hair et al., 2014). If the  $p$  value differences of the path coefficients were not lower than 0.05 or higher than 0.95 at the 5% significant level then there was a moderating effect (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Sarstedt, Henseler, & Ringle, 2011).

### 3.10 SUMMARY

To summarize, this chapter provides an explanation of the research design and measurements that were used in the instrument. In addition, the details of the sampling plan and data collection methods were also explained. Finally, the last section of this chapter provides an overview on the data analysis tools and techniques employed for this study.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the findings from the data analysis procedures and consists of nine sections. The first section provides an introduction to the chapter while the second section elaborates the data screening measures based on missing data, suspicious response, outliers and data distribution. Section three reports the response rate analysis and the demographic profile of the respondents. Section four explains the model's specification. The fifth section covers the assessment of the measurement model or outer model that reports the reliability and validity of the constructs. Section six explains the statistical output of the assessment of the structural model or inner model and interprets the predictive quality of the model. Section seven reports on the mediation analysis and section eight covers the moderation analysis results. The last section provides a summary of chapter.

#### **4.2 DATA SCREENING**

Data screening is extremely vital for quantitative research especially when using structural equation modeling (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). During the process of data collection, particularly when using questionnaires, there may be potential for data collection issues to occur. Some of the issues that may arise can be related to respondents' unwillingness to take part in the survey, the interviewer recording the wrong responses, data entry errors by the researcher, the data collected

containing outliers or the data may not be normally distributed. All these issues can have an impact on the final data that will be used for analysis and may influence the robustness of the results in quantitative study. Therefore, it is important to discuss the measures taken for data screening.

#### 4.2.1 Missing Data

Missing data are always a problem especially in the context of social science research (Hair et al., 2017). Hence, it is necessary to identify if there are any missing values in the dataset before conducting the analysis. If the percentage of missing values is below ten percent, then the missing data can be ignored (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). According to Kalton (1983), there can be three reasons why there are missing data. First, it may be due to non-coverage whereby the respondents are not the initial targeted sample of the research. The second reason is subject non-response, also referred to as unit non-response. This describes data that are missing because the respondent was part of the survey but did not respond to the questions in the survey. The third reason may be due to item non-response where respondents provide answers to only some of the questions in the survey.

The data collection for this study was done through face-to-face interactions and therefore, the respondents completed all the questions and there were no subject non-response or item non-response missing data. However, as there was a screening question to omit responses from business travellers, 32 respondents did not have responses because once these respondents were identified as business travellers, they were not required to continue with the survey. These 32 were not included in the dataset for data analysis because they were not part of the intended target sample.



#### **4.2.2 Suspicious Response Patterns**

Another area of concern before data analysis is checking for any suspicious response patterns. Patterns such as straight lining or diagonal lining are causes of concern because it may mean that respondents are not really answering the questions but just simply completing the questionnaire. A straight lining response pattern occurs when a respondent selects the same response for most of the questions in the entire questionnaire. On the other hand, diagonal lining refers to response patterns where a respondent selects the response from one extreme end of the scale to the other extreme end for items that measure the same construct. There were no cases found with diagonal lining responses in the dataset. However, there were three cases (13, 83, 186) of straight lining that were identified for further inspection. After conducting a visual inspection of these cases, it showed that for the cases with straight lining responses, the respondents selected the same responses for reverse coded questions as well. Based on the visual inspection, there appeared to be suspicious response patterns and these three cases were removed from the dataset and not included for further analysis.

#### **4.2.3 Outlier Analysis**

Outlier analysis is another important step that needed to be addressed before finalizing the dataset for further analysis because outliers can have an impact on the outcome of the statistical analysis results (Hair et al., 2010). An outlier refers to an extreme response for a question or extreme responses to a series of questions, and outliers can result from data entry errors by the researcher or are actual responses from the respondents (Hair et al., 2017). There are various ways to check for potential outliers

in a dataset and for the purpose of this study, outliers were identified by examining the standardized z-scores. SPSS was used to transform the variable scores to the standardized z-scores of the variables. Based on the criteria suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), any z-score values that are outside the range of -3.29 or +3.29 are considered as potential outliers. Using this as a benchmark for the evaluation of outliers, there were three outliers detected in the dataset. These three cases were then crosschecked with the original questionnaire to determine if it was a data entry error or the responses of respondents. After further evaluation, it was found that the three cases of outliers were due to data entry error and the correct responses were keyed into the new dataset. A final round of evaluation of the standardized z-scores was conducted and this time, there were no values that were outside the range of -3.29 and +3.29. Therefore, there were no potential outliers in the final dataset.

#### **4.2.4 Data Distribution**

PLS-SEM can handle data that are not normally distributed (Hair et al., 2014) because it is a nonparametric statistical approach and there are no assumptions made on data distribution. Although PLS-SEM can be used in non-normal distribution conditions, it is still advisable to check for normality of data distribution in a dataset because extreme non-normal data can increase the standard errors in bootstrapping results (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, a modern view of PLS suggests that normality assumptions do not differ from other SEM techniques (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). Therefore, the data distribution for this study was assessed before further analysis using PLS-SEM.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilks test were used to assess the normality of the data. Based on the results of both tests in Table 4.1, there was a significance of 0.000 for all variables. This means that the null hypothesis is rejected, and the data are not normally distributed. Although these two tests showed significance, further tests are also needed to check on skewness and kurtosis to determine how far the data differ from normality (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 4.1  
*Tests of Normality*

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>	Shapiro-Wilks	Skewness	Kurtosis
D_Image1	0.186	0.912	0.050	-0.575
D_Image2	0.208	0.895	-0.221	-0.261
D_Image3	0.230	0.900	0.098	-0.246
D_Image4	0.212	0.888	-0.134	-0.626
D_Image5	0.204	0.896	-0.180	-0.331
D_Image6	0.202	0.896	-0.192	-0.242
D_Image7	0.212	0.904	-0.019	-0.353
D_Image8	0.215	0.903	0.102	-0.453
ExpFam1	0.238	0.882	-0.106	-0.044
ExpFam2	0.213	0.884	-0.081	-0.595
ExpFam3	0.205	0.899	-0.139	-0.283
ExpFam4	0.226	0.896	0.148	-0.335
InfoFam1	0.202	0.906	0.037	-0.428
InfoFam2	0.201	0.897	0.238	-0.611
InfoFam3	0.210	0.906	-0.063	-0.301
InfoFam4	0.206	0.905	-0.036	-0.353
OBAut1	0.281	0.856	-0.279	0.582
OBAut2	0.221	0.868	-0.380	0.231
OBAut3	0.225	0.889	-0.124	-0.140
ExisAut1	0.237	0.890	-0.029	-0.093
ExisAut2	0.223	0.885	-0.327	-0.197
ExisAut3	0.220	0.891	-0.256	-0.278
ExisAut4	0.209	0.898	-0.170	-0.206
ExisAut5	0.224	0.897	0.008	-0.313
ExisAut6	0.232	0.888	0.122	-0.424
ExisAut7	0.227	0.895	-0.074	-0.136



Table 4.1 (Continued)

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>	Shapiro-Wilks	Skewness	Kurtosis
TT Int1	0.219	0.879	-0.347	0.140
TT Int2	0.256	0.877	-0.455	-0.145
TT Int3	0.223	0.884	-0.286	0.187
TT Int4	0.195	0.898	-0.050	-0.563
TT Int5	0.229	0.900	0.144	-0.487
TL Int1	0.191	0.899	-0.049	-0.599
TL Int2	0.239	0.888	-0.054	-0.074
TL Int3	0.218	0.896	-0.009	-0.356
Joy1	0.246	0.865	-0.431	0.515
Joy2	0.226	0.874	-0.412	0.223
Joy3	0.253	0.872	-0.148	0.297
Joy4	0.240	0.872	-0.254	0.319
Joy5	0.224	0.902	-0.009	-0.361
Lovel	0.192	0.905	-0.012	-0.660
Love2	0.222	0.904	0.088	-0.507
Love3	0.199	0.907	-0.027	-0.471
Love4	0.196	0.906	-0.076	-0.449
Love5	0.209	0.903	-0.087	-0.283
PSurp1	0.228	0.899	-0.019	-0.224
PSurp2	0.312	0.821	-0.136	1.162
PSurp3	0.259	0.871	-0.054	0.110
PSurp4	0.234	0.889	-0.128	-0.005
PSurp5	0.210	0.903	-0.138	-0.335
UnPle1	0.222	0.897	0.416	-0.593
UnPle2	0.233	0.885	0.550	-0.353
UnPle3	0.211	0.887	0.413	-0.293
UnPle4	0.189	0.874	0.453	-0.627
Satisfaction1	0.306	0.828	-0.293	1.058
Satisfaction2	0.235	0.888	-0.089	-0.051
Satisfaction3	0.222	0.892	-0.151	-0.116
Satisfaction4	0.223	0.890	-0.182	-0.041
Satisfaction5	0.243	0.890	-0.006	-0.108
Satisfaction6	0.198	0.901	-0.099	-0.452
Satisfaction7	0.225	0.902	-0.038	-0.356
BehLoy1	0.299	0.835	-0.350	0.930
BehLoy2	0.245	0.884	-0.101	0.084
BehLoy3	0.273	0.869	-0.037	0.430
BehLoy4	0.222	0.889	-0.099	-0.229
BehLoy5	0.231	0.884	-0.088	-0.175

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>	Shapiro-Wilks	Skewness	Kurtosis
AttLoy1	0.204	0.896	-0.074	-0.420
AttLoy2	0.215	0.900	-0.045	-0.355
AttLoy3	0.193	0.906	0.039	-0.637
AttLoy4	0.234	0.898	0.061	-0.273
AttLoy5	0.203	0.899	0.058	-0.581
ExpLoy1	0.214	0.903	0.072	-0.409
ExpLoy2	0.211	0.902	0.221	-0.507

Skewness refers to whether the distribution of the variable is symmetrical. If the data is skewed towards either the left or right of the normal distribution, then skewness exists. Kurtosis on the other hand, refers to the assessment of the peakness of the distribution. Kurtosis exists when the distribution of responses is too peaked or too flat. As a guideline, if the skewness and kurtosis values are less than -1 or more than 1, it may indicate that the distribution is problematic (Bowen & Guo, 2012). The results in Table 4.1 shows that some values of kurtosis are above the recommended guideline and this indicates that kurtosis exists. For instance, the kurtosis values for PSurp2 and Satisfaction1 are 1.162 and 1.058 respectively. This shows that the data are not normally distributed. Although non-normality exists, it may not be an issue in further analysis because in cases with large samples of 200 or more, the existence of skewness and kurtosis will not have a major impact on the subsequent statistical analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Furthermore, as discussed in chapter 3, PLS-SEM is suitable for use with non-normal data.

#### 4.2.5 Common Method Bias

Both the Harman's single factor test and full collinearity test were used to assess CMV in this study. For the Harman's single factor test, the principal axis factoring extraction method with unrotated factor solution was conducted for all 72 items from

every construct (destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and destination loyalty). The results of the factor analysis in Table 4.2 shows that the factors accounted for 31% of the total variance. The first unrotated factor captured only 32% of the variance in the data. Thus, the two underlying assumptions of CMV is not met as there is no single factor that emerged, and the first factor did not capture most of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, the results suggest that CMV is not an issue in this study.

Table 4.2  
*Total Variance Explained*

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	23.096	32.078	32.078	22.437	31.162	31.162
2	3.577	4.968	37.046			
3	2.079	2.887	39.932			
4	1.927	2.676	42.609			
5	1.613	2.240	44.849			
6	1.526	2.119	46.968			
7	1.430	1.986	48.954			
8	1.306	1.814	50.769			
9	1.290	1.791	52.560			
10	1.240	1.722	54.281			
11	1.224	1.700	55.982			
12	1.156	1.606	57.588			
13	1.121	1.556	59.144			
14	1.084	1.505	60.649			
15	1.033	1.435	62.084			
16	1.018	1.414	63.498			
17	0.950	1.319	64.816			
18	0.925	1.285	66.102			
19	0.894	1.242	67.343			
20	0.888	1.233	68.576			
21	0.877	1.218	69.794			
22	0.806	1.119	70.913			
23	0.761	1.056	71.969			
24	0.738	1.025	72.994			



Table 4.2 (Continued)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
25	0.726	1.008	74.002			
26	0.713	0.990	74.992			
27	0.691	0.959	75.951			
28	0.663	0.920	76.871			
29	0.653	0.907	77.778			
30	0.637	0.884	78.662			
31	0.615	0.855	79.517			
32	0.609	0.846	80.363			
33	0.601	0.835	81.198			
34	0.573	0.796	81.994			
35	0.553	0.769	82.763			
36	0.533	0.740	83.502			
37	0.524	0.727	84.230			
38	0.515	0.716	84.946			
39	0.509	0.707	85.652			
40	0.488	0.677	86.329			
41	0.475	0.659	86.988			
42	0.458	0.636	87.624			
43	0.450	0.625	88.250			
44	0.435	0.605	88.854			
45	0.426	0.591	89.446			
46	0.419	0.582	90.027			
47	0.403	0.559	90.587			
48	0.386	0.537	91.123			
49	0.378	0.525	91.648			
50	0.359	0.498	92.147			
51	0.358	0.497	92.643			
52	0.342	0.475	93.118			
53	0.337	0.469	93.587			
54	0.330	0.458	94.045			
55	0.314	0.437	94.482			
56	0.306	0.425	94.907			
57	0.298	0.414	95.321			
58	0.284	0.395	95.716			
59	0.275	0.382	96.098			
60	0.265	0.368	96.466			
61	0.258	0.358	96.825			
62	0.255	0.354	97.178			
63	0.245	0.341	97.519			

Table 4.2 (Continued)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
64	0.238	0.330	97.849			
65	0.228	0.317	98.166			
66	0.212	0.295	98.460			
67	0.209	0.290	98.750			
68	0.198	0.275	99.025			
69	0.189	0.262	99.288			
70	0.185	0.256	99.544			
71	0.168	0.234	99.778			
72	0.160	0.222	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Another statistical approach to assess CMV was also conducted using the full collinearity test by Kock and Lynn (2012). Based on the results of the full collinearity test in Table 4.3, all VIF values are lower than 3.3. Thus, the model can be considered free from common method bias (Kock, 2015).

Table 4.3

*Full Collinearity VIFs*

	VIF
DFamiliarity	2.1
DImage	2.3
DLoyalty	3.2
PAuthenticity	3.0
Satisfaction	3.2
TEmotions	3.1
TInteractions	2.9

### 4.3 RESPONDENTS' CHARACTERISTICS

In this section, the response rates and demographic profile of the respondents are reported.

#### **4.3.1 Response Rate**

A total of 500 international tourists at Penang and Melaka were approached for this study. Out of the 500 tourists approached, 483 were willing to take part in the survey. This generated a high response rate of 96.6%, well above the range indicated in other tourism studies (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Sun et al., 2013; Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015). The reason for such a high response rate could be due to the data collection method through interviewer-completed onsite survey whereby this method helps to increase the response rate (Jennings, 2010). This method also helped to ensure that every question in the questionnaire was completed, thus reducing the number of non-useable questionnaires. As discussed earlier under missing data, there were 32 respondents who were business travellers and were removed from the final dataset. In addition, there were three cases of straight lining that were also removed from the dataset. This total of 35 responses were not usable and from the total of 483 respondents, 448 questionnaires were useable. This resulted in a 92.75% useable rate. The demographic profile of these 448 respondents are presented in the next part.

#### **4.3.2 Demographic Profile of Respondents**

The demographic profile of respondents provides the frequency and percentage of the sample characteristics for the study. Having an understanding of the sample characteristics will be useful for identifying the suitability of decision-making based on the results of the sample. Table 4.4 provides the summary of the demographic profile of respondents. The profile variables include gender, age, education level, marital status, monthly income level, nationality, status of visit, length of stay, and



source of information. While these profile variables were garnered, only nationality, age and gender were used in the moderation analysis.

Table 4.4  
*Demographic Profile of Respondents*

Demographic Variable		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	243	54.2
	Female	205	45.8
Age	18 to 23 years	82	18.3
	24 to 30 years	108	24.1
	31 to 40 years	120	26.8
	41 to 50 years	100	22.3
	Above 50 years	38	8.5
Education Level	High School Certificate	81	18.1
	Diploma	125	27.9
	Bachelor's degree	167	37.3
	Masters	60	13.4
	PhD	15	3.3
Marital Status	Single	215	48.0
	Married with children	192	42.9
	Married without children	39	8.7
	Others	2	0.4
Monthly Income Level	USD 500 and below	85	19.0
	USD 501 - USD 1,000	101	22.5
	USD 1,001 - USD 1,500	137	30.6
	USD 1,501 - USD 2,000	82	18.3
	USD 2,001 and above	43	9.6
Nationality	South - East Asians	128	28.6
	Eastern Asians	156	34.8
	South - Central Asians	33	7.4
	Australians	45	10.0
	Europeans	64	14.3
	North Americans & Canadians	19	4.2
	Others	3	0.7
Status of Visit	First time visitor	314	70.1
	Repeat visitor	134	29.9
Length of Stay	1 day	19	4.2
	2 days	64	14.3
	3 days	165	36.8
	4 days	141	31.5
	More than 4 days	59	13.2
Source of Information	Recommendation by family/friends	86	19.2
	Tourism Malaysia website	91	20.3
	Other travel websites like Trip Advisor, Expedia, etc.	113	25.2
	Travel Guide Books	115	25.7
	Tourist Information Centre	43	9.6

There was an almost equal number of male and female respondents with 54.2% male and 45.8% female. This is a good representation of the views from both genders. Similarly, the various age groups were also well represented with 18.3% of the respondents coming from the 18 to 23 year old age group, 24.1% of the respondents from the 24 to 30 year old age group, 26.8% from the 31 to 40 year old age group and 22.3% from the 41 to 50 year old age group. The one exception was the age group of respondents over 50 years of age which had a lower percentage of 8.5%.

Slightly more than one third (37.3%) of the respondents were Bachelor degree holders, followed by 27.9% Diploma holders, with 18.1% being high school leavers, 13.4% were Masters holders and 3.3% had Doctorates. Based on the educational level profile, most of the respondents of this study have tertiary education backgrounds.

In terms of marital status, more than half of the respondents were married with 42.9% being married with children and 8.7% being married without children. There was also a high percentage (48%) of respondents who were single while only 0.4% belonged to the 'other' categories, for example, divorced and/or widowed.

Regarding the income level, 30.6% of the respondents were from the middle income group with a monthly income between USD 1,001 to USD 1,500. Malaysia is a value for money destination which makes it an affordable place to visit and this explains why there were many respondents who belonged to the middle income group. In addition, there was also a high percentage (22.5%) of respondents with a monthly income of USD 500 to USD 1,000 and 19% with a monthly income of USD 500 and below. Malaysia is also a fascinating destination that can attract higher income

earners. In this study, 18.3% of the respondents had a monthly income of USD 1,501 to USD 2,000 and 9.6% had a monthly income of USD 2,001 and above. This shows that the study has a profile of respondents from both the higher and lower income groups.

As this study was based on international tourists, there were seven groups of nationalities that took part in the survey. Slightly more than one third (34.8%) of the respondents were Eastern Asians from countries such as China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Taiwan. There were many South East Asian respondents as well with a percentage of 28.6% coming from Brunei, Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. There was a small proportion (7.4%) of respondents from South-Central Asia that included countries such as India and the Maldives. Apart from Asia, 14.3% of the respondents were Europeans, for example, British, Dutch, French, German and Scottish. North Americans and Canadians accounted for 4.2% of the respondents while 0.7% were South Americans and Africans. Another 10% of the respondents were Australians.

Most of the respondents of the survey were first time visitors to Melaka and Georgetown, Penang. This accounted for 70.1% of the respondents while the remaining 29.9% were those who had visited the site more than once. The number of visits of these repeat tourists ranged from two to ten.

In terms of the length of stay, 36.8% of the respondents stayed in Melaka or Georgetown, Penang for three days, while 31.5% stayed for four days and 13.2% stayed for more than four days. This showed that the respondents had an average of



three to four days length of stay. There were also other respondents who stayed for shorter periods with 14.3% who stayed for two days and 4.2% who stayed for one day only. The percentage for longer duration visits seems to be much higher. This may be due to the offering of many places of attraction, particularly cultural sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang.

Lastly, the respondents obtained information from many different sources. 25.7% of the respondents obtained information about Malaysia through travel guide books, while 25.2% obtained information from travel websites such as TripAdvisor and Expedia. 20.3% of the respondents obtained information from the Tourism Malaysia website, while 19.2% received recommendations from family or friends and 9.6% got their information from tourist information centres. This shows that online media platforms are a more popular source of information and provide useful information for destination marketers to focus their marketing efforts on online marketing. In addition, the recommendations of family and friends were also an important source.

#### **4.4 MODEL SPECIFICATION**

After the data cleaning process to identify missing data, suspicious response pattern, outliers and data distribution, the final dataset with 448 responses was used for modeling and analysis. As discussed in chapter three, PLS-SEM was employed to test the hypothesized model on the determinants of destination loyalty. SmartPLS 3.2.7 was used for modeling and data analysis purposes. Careful consideration was taken when modeling because this study was specified with higher-order models or Hierarchical Component Models (HCM). The application of HCM has not been

extensive in the tourism field and until 2014, there were only five tourism studies in top tourism journals that had applied HCM (Valle & Assaker, 2015). This study has constructs that were operationalized at a higher level of abstraction with higher-order components (HOC) or second order constructs, and consists of five second-order constructs and fifteen first-order constructs. Destination Familiarity (DFamiliarity) was viewed as a second-order construct with two first-order dimensions, namely Experiential Familiarity (ExpFam) and Information Familiarity (InfoFam). Perceived Authenticity (PAAuthenticity) was a second-order construct that has two first-order dimensions of Object-Based Authenticity (ObjAut) and Existential Authenticity (ExisAut). Tourist Interactions (TInteractions) was modelled as second-order construct with two first-order dimensions of Tourist-to-Tourist Interactions (TTInt) and Tourist-to-Local Interactions (TLInt). Tourist Emotions (TEmotions) was also modelled as a second-order construct along with four first-order dimensions of Joy, Love, Pleasant Surprise (PSurp) and Unpleasantness (UnPle).

In total, 72 indicators were included in the original model for analysis. The type of HCM was modelled based on a reflective-formative model (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012) and a two-stage HCM analysis that combined the repeat indicators approach and latent variable scores (Hair et al., 2017) was used for testing the HCM model. The first stage used the repeat indicators approach to generate the latent variable scores for the first-order construct. Then the latent variable scores of the first-order constructs were used as manifest variables in the second-order construct for the HCM analysis. According to Becker et al. (2012), the repeat indicators approach is suitable for reflective-formative type models. The application of the two-stage HCM analysis runs together with the two-step process in the application of PLS-SEM. The

process first examines the measurement model or outer model and the second step evaluates the structural model or inner model (Chin, 2010; Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016; Hair et al., 2017). In the next two sections, the results of the measurement model and structural model assessments are discussed.

#### **4.5 MEASUREMENT MODEL (OUTER MODEL) ASSESSMENT RESULTS**

The first step in the PLS-SEM analysis is to examine the measurement model or inner model. As discussed in chapter three, the measurement model in this study consists of first order reflective indicators and is therefore a reflective measurement model. The evaluation of a reflective measurement model focuses mainly on examining the reliability and validity of the constructs (Valle & Assaker, 2015), which measure the internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Using SmartPLS 3.2.7, the PLS Algorithm was calculated in order to evaluate the measurement model. Before running the PLS Algorithm, some basic parameter settings were considered. The default settings of the path weighting scheme for the inner weights estimation, a minimum of 300 for maximum iterations, and the stop criterion of  $1.0E-7$  were maintained. Once these settings were done, the PLS Algorithm was calculated and the overall measurement model results are illustrated in Figure 4.1 and discussed in detail in the next sub-sections. In addition to examining the first-order reflective constructs, the second-order formative constructs were also examined as part of the measurement model.



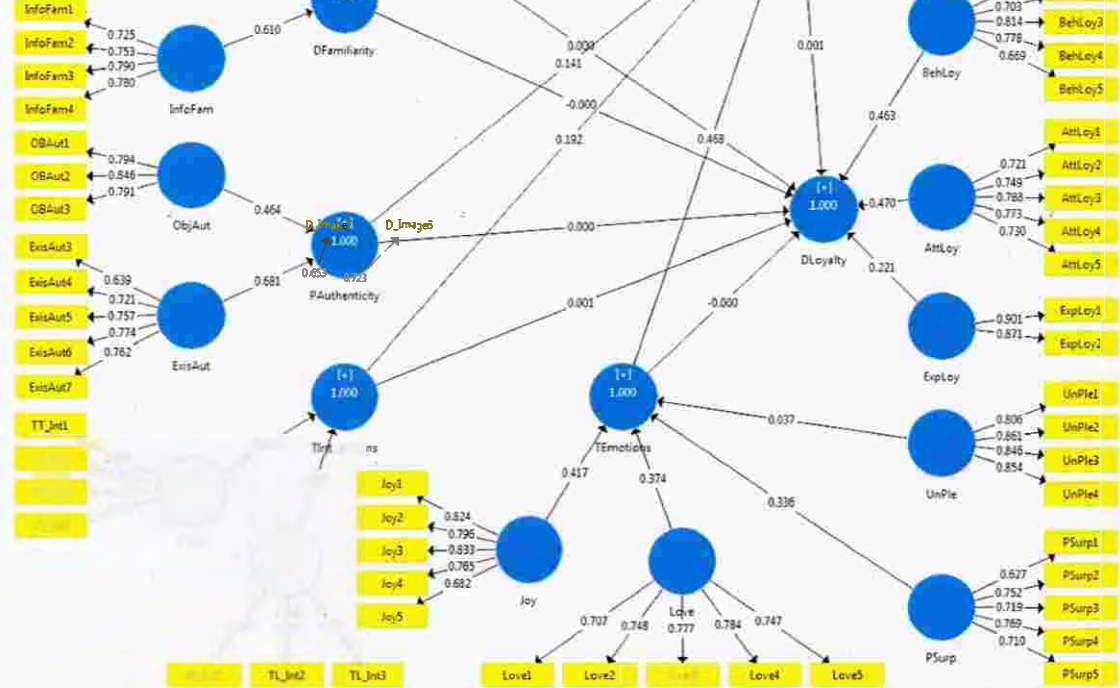


Figure 4.1  
Measurement Model Results

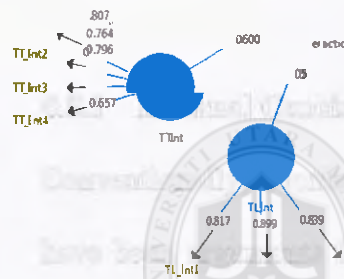


Figure 4.1  
Measurement Model Results

#### 4.5.1 Internal Consistency Reliability

Conventionally, Cronbach's Alpha is used to measure internal consistency but there have been arguments that it is a conservative measure because it has a tendency to provide lower estimates of reliability (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017). Composite reliability on the other hand is more accurate and suitable for latent variables with reflective indicators (Chin, 2010) and is preferred for the testing of internal consistency because it emphasizes standardized loadings and measurement errors for each item (Werts, Linn, & Joreskog, 1974).

Table 4.5  
Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Destination Image	6	0.822	0.871
Destination Familiarity			
ExpFam	4	0.703	0.818
InfoFam	4	0.759	0.847
Perceived Authenticity			
ObjAut	3	0.739	0.852
ExisAut	5	0.782	0.852
Tourist Interactions			
TTInt	4	0.751	0.843
TLInt	3	0.811	0.888
Tourist Emotions			
Joy	5	0.839	0.887
Love	5	0.809	0.867
PSurp	5	0.762	0.840
UnPle	4	0.864	0.907
Satisfaction	7	0.846	0.884
Destination Loyalty			
AttLoy	5	0.808	0.867
BehLoy	5	0.803	0.865
ExpLoy	2	0.727	0.879

Both values were examined for the measurement model in this study because Cronbach's Alpha provides the lower limit while composite reliability provides the upper boundary of reliability (Hair et al., 2017). Based on the results displayed in Table 4.5, the reliability scores for both criteria are above the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) and this indicates acceptable reliability of the indicators used in measuring the construct. Examining the outer loadings was another

index to measure indicator reliability. This is discussed in more detail in the next subsection on convergent validity.

#### 4.5.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity measures the level of connection between the indicators and the same construct to determine if the indicators represent the same construct (Valle & Assaker, 2015). The outer loadings or indicator reliability and the average variance extracted (AVE) were examined to establish convergent validity. As a rule of thumb in examining outer loadings, the standardized loading of the indicator and the value should be 0.708 or higher (Hair et al., 2017). In the initial round of assessment, 15 indicators were found to have outer loadings below the value of 0.708 but were above 0.60. This is common in the context of social studies that frequently have loadings of less than 0.70 (Hulland, 1999). These indicators were not immediately deleted because for values between 0.40 to 0.70, further assessment of the AVE results was needed.

Based on the initial AVE results, three constructs showed values below the threshold of 0.50 and they were Destination Image, Existential Authenticity and Tourist-to-Tourist Interactions. This then prompted the researcher to relook at the indicators that had outer loadings below 0.708 under these constructs. Under destination image, DImage5 and DImage6 were removed from analysis and this helped to increase the AVE value to be above the threshold of 0.50. Similarly, ExisAut1 and ExisAut2 were removed from the scale to increase the AVE value and TTInt5 was removed to increase the AVE value to be above the recommended threshold of 0.50. After deletion of these five indicators, there were still ten remaining indicators with outer



loadings below 0.708 but these were remained for further analysis because the AVE values were above the recommended threshold of 0.50 (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2017). The outer loadings and AVE values are displayed in Table 4.6 (Refer to Appendix B).

All the final outer loadings were above 0.60, which indicates that the indicators have much in common and are able to explain the construct. In other words, it suggests that the indicators have more shared variance with the construct than with the error variance. The AVE values of this study ranged from 0.514 to 0.727 and are above 0.50 and this implies that the construct explains more than half of the variance of the indicators that measure the construct. Thus, the results showed that convergent validity was established.

#### **4.5.3 Discriminant Validity**

The purpose of discriminant validity is to assess the degree to which the indicators measuring a construct is different from the indicators measuring another construct. As discussed in chapter three, discriminant validity was assessed using cross-loadings, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion and Henseler et al.'s (2015) heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations criterion.

The initial step to check on discriminant validity was done by reviewing the cross loadings. The results presented in Table 4.7 (Refer to Appendix C) showed that the indicator's highest loadings were on the construct in which it was originally assigned. This satisfied the condition in which the indicators' loadings that are related to the associated construct have outer loadings that are greater than the loadings of all the

other remaining constructs (Hair et al., 2011). Thus, discriminant validity was established because the indicators' outer loadings were highly correlated with its constructs. However, this criterion alone was not sufficient to establish discriminant validity because it has been argued that the performance of using this criterion is not theoretically sound and there is scarce research that links to the efficiency of this criterion in variance based SEM (Henseler et al., 2015). Therefore, the Fornell-Larker criterion was also assessed, as this method has been evaluated in tourism research (Valle & Assaker, 2015).

The Fornell-Larcker criterion compares the square root of AVE of each construct with the correlations of other constructs. Based on this method, it is suggested that the square root of AVE of each construct should be greater than the highest correlation with other constructs. This is because it is believed that a construct should share more variance with its associated indicators than with other constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The results presented in Table 4.8 show the square root of AVE on the diagonal and the correlations between constructs on the non-diagonal. The results indicates that the square root of AVE for each construct is higher than the intercorrelations of other constructs. Therefore, the criterion of Fornell-Larcker was fulfilled and discriminant validity was confirmed.

Table 4.8

Construct Correlations with the Square Root of AVE along the diagonal

	AttLoy	BehLoy	DImage	ExisAut	ExpFam	ExpLoy	InfoFam	Joy	Love	ObjAut	PSurp	Satisfaction	TLInt	TTInt	UnPle
AttLoy	<b>0.753</b>														
BehLoy	0.670	<b>0.750</b>													
DImage	0.545	0.61	<b>0.729</b>												
ExisAut	0.574	0.553	0.557	<b>0.732</b>											
ExpFam	0.423	0.460	0.553	0.478	<b>0.727</b>										
ExpLoy	0.60	0.470	0.59	0.484	0.356	<b>0.886</b>									
InfoFam	0.502	0.506	0.539	0.498	0.529	0.443	<b>0.762</b>								
Joy	0.625	0.62	0.573	0.644	0.58	0.449	0.466	<b>0.782</b>							
Love	0.68	0.54	0.537	0.62	0.46	0.494	0.489	0.67	<b>0.753</b>						
ObjAut	0.466	0.574	0.63	0.508	0.495	0.38	0.503	0.590	0.453	<b>0.811</b>					
PSurp	0.590	0.588	0.570	0.580	0.462	0.455	0.457	0.686	0.654	0.490	<b>0.717</b>				
Satisfaction	0.677	0.695	0.68	0.648	0.485	0.521	0.490	0.734	0.677	0.544	0.667	<b>0.722</b>			
TLIn	0.516	0.519	0.478	0.56	0.387	0.488	0.476	0.53	0.567	0.440	0.55	0.575	<b>0.853</b>		
TTInt	0.592	0.597	0.585	0.626	0.501	0.484	0.464	0.676	0.607	0.478	0.592	0.671	0.552	<b>0.758</b>	1
UnPle	0.033	-0.067	-0.8	0.065	0.08	0.042	0.013	0.065	0.00	-0.0	0.046	0.028	0.0	0.092	<b>0.842</b>
							1		1				1	1	1



Although the Fornell-Larcker criterion has been an established method used by many researchers in assessing discriminant validity (Valle & Assaker, 2015), it has recently been criticized for its lack of credibility in performance, especially when there is little variation in the indicators' loadings (Hair et al., 2017). Furthermore, the performance of AVE becomes weaker in the application of PLS which usually overestimates the loadings (Voorhees, Brady, Calantone, & Ramirez, 2016). Therefore, a new criterion was introduced by Henseler et al. (2015) for testing discriminant validity, known as the HTMT ratio of correlations. This new criterion was applied in testing the discriminant validity of this study. The values of HTMT were examined and based on the results presented in Table 4.9, there is support for discriminant validity because the HTMT values are all below the threshold of 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2017). Therefore, discriminant validity was confirmed and is valid for the next step of the structural model assessment.

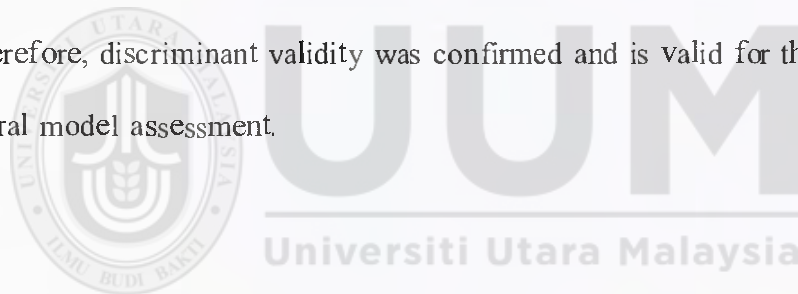


Table 4.9

*Heterotrait-Monotrait HTMT Ratio o Correlations\**

	AttLcy	BehLcy	DImage	ExisAut	ExpFam	ExpLcy	InfoFam	Joy	Love	ObjAut	PSurp	Satisfaction	TLInt	TTInt	UnPle
AttLcy	0.83														
BehLcy	0.669	0.749													
DImage	0.725	0.703	0.698												
ExisAut	0.557	0.608	0.722	0.639											
ExpFam	0.780	0.62	0.672	0.643	0.49										
ExpLcy	0.640	0.648	0.682	0.648	0.77	0.596									
InfoFam	0.76	0.756	0.69	0.800	0.673	0.575	0.586								
Joy	0.762	0.670	0.659	0.782	0.69	0.64	0.623	0.84							
Love	0.60	0.743	0.80	0.669	0.682	0.519	0.670	0.700	0.585						
ObjAut	0.750	0.750	0.72	0.75	0.626	0.608	0.600	0.855	0.826	0.652					
PSurp	0.86	0.84	0.735	0.797	0.624	0.662	0.640	0.872	0.88	0.684	0.829				
Satisfaction	0.635	0.645	0.585	0.706	0.597	0.632	0.606	0.642	0.697	0.568	0.652	0.69			
TLInt	0.760	0.767	0.742	0.88	0.683	0.658	0.65	0.849	0.78	0.638	0.78	0.843	0.707		
TTIn	0.060	0.0	0.44	0.078	0.045	0.054	0.048	0.075	0.7	0.27	0.237	0.0	0.13	0.12	1
UnPle															

\*HTMT &lt; 0.90

Shaded boxes are the standard reporting format for HTMT procedure.

#### 4.5.4 Second-Order Formative Construct Measurement

As destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty have been operationalized as second-order constructs, the collinearity issues and significance of these constructs were examined before assessing the structural model. In assessing for collinearity issues, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was examined. Based on the results in Table 4.10, the VIF values are all below 3 and this demonstrates that the dimensions are not highly correlated with one another because the VIF values are below the threshold of 5 (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, all the outer weights of the first order constructs are significant. This justifies that the first-order constructs contribute to the second-order constructs. Therefore, this empirically supports the operationalization of destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty as second-order constructs.

Table 4.10

*VIF Significance of Outer Weights of First Order Constructs on the Designated Second Order Formative Constructs*

Second-Order Formative Constructs	Indicators	VIF	Outer Weights	t Value	p Value	95% BCa Confidence Interval	Significance (p < 0.05)?
DLoyalty	AttLoy	2.241	0.312	5.627	0.000	[0.202, 0.419]	Yes
	BehLoy	1.839	0.566	11.605	0.000	[0.463, 0.656]	Yes
	ExpLoy	1.585	0.289	6.287	0.000	[0.199, 0.382]	Yes
DFamiliarity	ExpFam	1.390	0.551	8.601	0.000	[0.429, 0.681]	Yes
	InfoFam	1.390	0.593	9.433	0.000	[0.457, 0.704]	Yes
PAuthenticity	ExisAut	1.349	0.619	17.098	0.000	[0.546, 0.688]	Yes
	ObjAut	1.349	0.532	14.088	0.000	[0.457, 0.605]	Yes
TInteractions	TLInt	1.439	0.428	9.280	0.000	[0.336, 0.519]	Yes
	TTInt	1.439	0.698	17.813	0.000	[0.617, 0.773]	Yes
TEmotions	Joy	2.258	0.488	10.331	0.000	[0.394, 0.579]	Yes
	Love	2.100	0.348	7.429	0.000	[0.260, 0.444]	Yes
	Psurp	2.173	0.294	5.790	0.000	[0.190, 0.391]	Yes
	UnPle	1.011	-0.074	2.354	0.019	[-0.135, -0.013]	Yes



## 4.6 STRUCTURAL MODEL ASSESSMENT RESULTS

The discussions of measurement model assessment in the previous section confirmed that both the reliability and validity of the measurement model was established. This allowed for the continuation of the second step in the PLS-SEM analysis, which is the structural model assessment. The structural model assessment was conducted to test the hypothesis of the study and to describe the relationship between the constructs. There were several procedures that were used to assess the structural model and the results are discussed in the subsequent sections.

### 4.6.1 Collinearity Assessment

The first step of the structural model assessment procedure was to examine the existence of collinearity. This is because the estimation of path coefficients may be biased if collinearity exists among the predictor constructs (Hair et al., 2017). The consistent PLS (PLSc) Algorithm was calculated using SmartPLS 3.27 and the results of the inner VIF values are displayed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

*Inner VIF Values in the Structural Model*

Constructs	Satisfaction	DLoyalty
DFamiliarity	2.040	2.040
DImage	2.216	2.246
PAuthenticity	2.914	2.966
Satisfaction		3.049
TEmotions	3.045	3.737
TInteractions	2.656	2.789

Based on the inner VIF values of all sets of predictor constructs, the values are all below the threshold of five (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, there were no critical

collinearity issues among the predictor constructs. This allowed for the continuation of the next step of the structural model assessment that looks into the path coefficients and significance of these path coefficients.

#### **4.6.2 Path Coefficients and Significance**

The PLS Algorithm and bootstrapping procedures with a subsample of 5000 were conducted to test the significance of the paths in the structural model of this study. The 5000 bootstrap samples that were used were based on the rule of thumb suggested by Hair et al. (2017), as the number of bootstrap samples should be much higher than the number of valid observations. In addition to setting the options in SmartPLS to 5000 bootstrap samples, other settings in the bootstrapping setup tab were selected before running the bootstrapping procedure. The sign changes was set to No Sign Changes because it is the most conservative in the bootstrap routine. In order to obtain a more detailed report on model evaluation, complete bootstrapping was selected instead of basic bootstrapping. Then, in the advanced settings, the default Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) bootstrap was selected as the confidence interval method. This is because this method adjusts for any deviations between the bootstrap distribution and the empirical distribution of the parameters (Hair et al., 2017). Finally, the test type remains at the default two-tailed and significance of 0.05. After all these settings were done, the calculation of the bootstrapping was initiated.

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Based on the bootstrapping procedure, the significance of the path coefficients was determined by the  $t$  values,  $p$  values, as well as the confidence interval. A path coefficient is considered significant when a  $t$  value is more than 1.96 and a  $p$  value is less than 0.05 at the significance level of 5%. Furthermore, the confidence interval

will not include zero. The results of the path coefficients,  $t$  values,  $p$  values and confidence intervals are presented in Table 4.12 and Figure 4.1.

Based on the hypotheses of this study, H1 hypothesized that satisfaction has a positive influence on destination loyalty. This hypothesis is supported as it can be seen in the results that Satisfaction has a significant relationship with Destination Loyalty (DLoyalty) at the 1% significance level ( $\beta = 0.296$ ,  $t = 6.334$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , confidence interval does not include zero). This implies that tourists who are satisfied with their visit at cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang are likely to recommend or return to the same destination or even visit similar cultural heritage sites. Furthermore, based on the outer loadings of satisfaction indicators, Satisfaction3 has the highest loading (0.770) which represents “I really like this trip to this cultural heritage site”. This implies that tourists who likes the trip will develop satisfaction towards the cultural heritage site.

Table 4.12

*Significance Testing Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients*

Hypothesis	$\beta$ Path Coefficients	$t$ Values	$p$ Values	95% Confidence Intervals	Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )?
H1: Satisfaction $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.296	6.334	0.000	[0.208, 0.390]	Yes**
H2: DImage $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.156	3.417	0.001	[0.066, 0.243]	Yes**
H3: DFamiliarity $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.085	1.539	0.124	[-0.018, 0.195]	No
H4: PAuthenticity $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.096	1.975	0.048	[-0.001, 0.191]	Yes
H5: TInteractions $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.175	3.404	0.001	[0.073, 0.272]	Yes**
H6: TEmotions $\rightarrow$ DLoyalty	0.157	2.891	0.004	[0.046, 0.259]	Yes**

\*\* $p < 0.01$

In chapter three, H2 proposed that destination image has a positive influence on destination loyalty. Similarly, H2 is also supported, as the results in Table 4.12 shows that Destination Image (DImage) has a significant influence on DLoyalty at the 1%



significance level ( $\beta = 0.156$ ,  $t = 3.417$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , confidence interval does not include zero). In addition, amongst the indicators of destination image, D Image2 has the highest indicator outer loading of 0.772, which is “This cultural heritage site is famous for its long history and reputation”. Other indicators of destination image in this current study such as “This cultural heritage site has beautiful architectural buildings and historical sites” and “This cultural heritage site reflects the historical colonial atmosphere and cultural blend” also have high outer loadings. These indicate that tourists’ perceived images of both Melaka and Georgetown, Penang are mostly based on the cities’ history, reputation and historical sites.

Contrary to existing literature, the results in Figure 4.2 reveal that Destination Familiarity (DFamiliarity) does not have a significant relationship with DLoyalty ( $\beta = 0.085$ ,  $t = 1.539$ ,  $p > 0.01$ , confidence interval does include zero). Therefore, H3 is rejected because the third hypothesis proposed that destination familiarity significantly influenced destination loyalty. This means that the more familiar a tourist is with the cultural heritage site, the less likely they are going to return to the same site. This situation may have occurred because the tourists are already very familiar with the sites and do not see a need to return to the site to experience it again.

H4 proposed that perceived authenticity has a significant positive influence on destination loyalty. Based on the results, Perceived Authenticity (PAAuthenticity) showed a significant influence on DLoyalty at the 5% significance level ( $\beta = 0.096$ ,  $t = 1.975$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This implies that tourists who perceived the sites and the experience at the sites to be authentic will most likely recommend or revisit the the same site or similar sites. Amongst the two formative indicators of perceived authenticity in this

study, existential authenticity has a higher outer weight of 0.619 compared to object-based authenticity that has an outer weight of 0.532. This means that tourists' perceived authenticity is contributed more by their experience at the cultural heritage sites that are considered to be authentic rather than the authenticity of the buildings themselves. This is also evident as ExisAut6 has the highest outer loading of 0.774 which states "I enjoyed the religious and spiritual experience". Therefore, H4 is also supported.

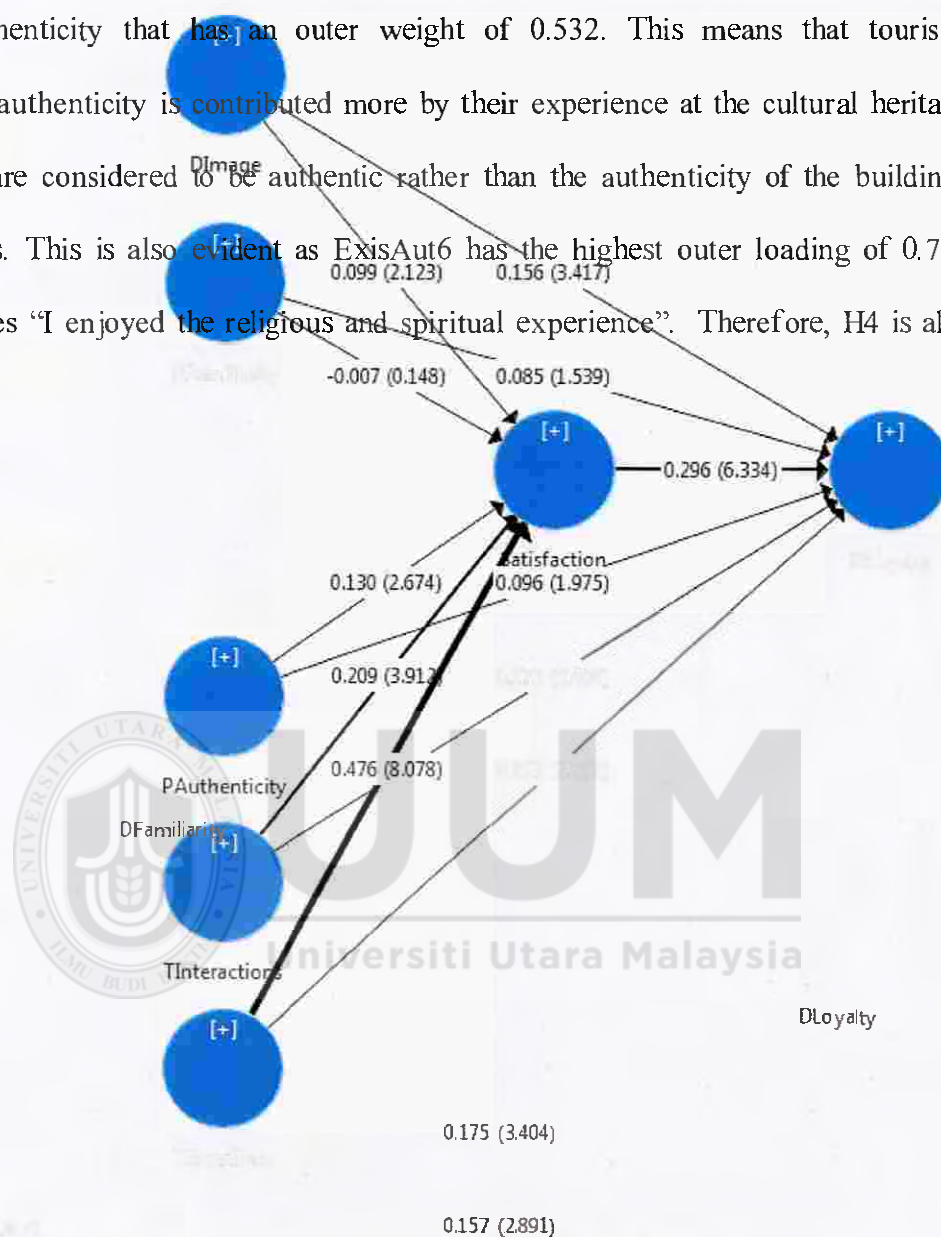


Figure 4.2  
Structural Model Results: Path Coefficients and Significance (t-values)

Based on the results in Table 4.12, H5 and H6 are also supported. H5 proposed that tourist interactions has a significant positive relationship with destination loyalty. As shown in Figure 4.2, Tourist Interactions (TInteractions) also provided support for the hypothesis as the results showed that it had significant influence on DLoyalty at the 1% significance level ( $\beta = 0.175$ ,  $t = 3.404$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , confidence interval does not include zero). This study found that tourist interactions has the second highest path coefficient of 0.175 after satisfaction. This indicates that tourist interactions is an important predictor for destination loyalty. Furthermore, based on the outer weights of tourist interactions, tourist-to-tourist interactions have a higher weight of 0.698 compared to tourist-to-local interactions with an outer weight of 0.428. This is evident as TTInt1 has the highest outer loading of 0.807 which states “It was comfortable to be taking part in the activities with acquaintances”. Although tourist-to-local interactions did not contribute as much as tourist-to-tourist interactions, it is still equally important in influencing destination loyalty of tourists at cultural heritage sites. This is evident in the statement of TLInt2 with an outer loading of 0.899, which states “I enjoy interacting with the locals”.

Lastly, H6 proposed that tourist emotions has a significant influence on destination loyalty. According to the results presented in Table 4.12, Tourist Emotions (TEmotions) showed significant relationship with DLoyalty at the 1% significance level ( $\beta = 0.157$ ,  $t = 2.891$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , confidence interval does not include zero). Based on the results of the outer weights of the indicators for tourist interactions, Joy was found to have a higher outer weight of 0.488 when compared to Love, PSurp and UnPle. This indicates that when tourists feel a sense of joy at a cultural heritage site, they are more willing to recommend the site to others and to revisit the same site or similar



cultural heritage sites. This is evident as Joy1 has the highest outer loading of 0.824, which states “I feel a sense of Joy towards this cultural heritage site”. On the other hand, UnPle has a low negative outer weight. This means that when tourists develop negative emotions at a cultural heritage site, it decreases the willingness of the tourist to recommend the site to others or to have any intention to revisit the same site.

Overall, path coefficients showed that satisfaction is the most important followed by tourist interactions, tourist emotions, and finally destination image. As satisfaction was hypothesized as a mediator in this study, it was also interesting to look at the total effect to assess how strongly each of the exogenous constructs (destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions) influenced destination loyalty via satisfaction. The significance testing results of the total effects are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13  
*Significance Testing Results of the Total Effects ( $p < 0.01$ )*

Hypothesis	Total Effect	Values	<i>p</i> Values	95% Confidence Intervals	Significance ( $p < 0.05$ )?
H1: Satisfaction → DLoyalty	0.296	6.334	0.000	[0.208,0.390]	Yes
H2: DImage → DLoyalty	0.186	3.951	0.000	[0.094, 0.276]	Yes
H3: DFamiliarity → DLoyalty	0.083	1.380	0.168	[-0.030,0.201]	No
H4: PAuthenticity → DLoyalty	0.135	2.649	0.008	[0.035,0.237]	Yes
H5: TInteractions → DLoyalty	0.237	4.704	0.000	[0.140,0.335]	Yes
H6: TEmotions → DLoyalty	0.298	5.410	0.000	[0.188,0.402]	Yes

Based on the results in Table 4.13, tourist emotions has the strongest total effect at the 1% significance level on destination loyalty (0.298), followed by satisfaction (0.296), tourist interactions (0.237) and destination image (0.186). When comparing the total effects with the direct effects of path coefficients in Table 4.9, the values of the total

effect are higher than direct effect and this indicates that satisfaction has a mediating effect on the relationship between the endogenous (destination loyalty) and exogenous constructs. This indicates the relevance of the exogenous constructs in explaining destination loyalty and that the direct relationship from the exogenous constructs to destination loyalty is mediated by satisfaction. The results of the mediating effect will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

These findings yield interesting outcomes and enhance the development of the literature in the area of destination loyalty. In addition to assessing the path coefficients, it is also important to know the predictive power of the model and the effect size of each exogenous construct. This is discussed in the next sub-section.

#### **4.6.3 Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ Value) and Effect Size ( $f^2$ )**

The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) measures the predictive accuracy of the model because  $R^2$  denotes the amount of explained variance of the endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2012) and looks at the combined effects of the exogenous constructs on the endogenous construct. In this study, the  $R^2$  values for satisfaction and destination loyalty are 0.672 and 0.689 respectively. This means that 67.2% of the variance in satisfaction is explained by destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions while 68.9% of the variance in destination loyalty is explained by satisfaction, destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions. Both the  $R^2$  values for satisfaction and destination loyalty were substantial because based on the suggestion by Chin (1998), the values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 are substantial,

moderate, and weak. Moreover, the  $R^2$  values of 0.672 and 0.689 are higher than the usual 0.20 value in consumer behavior studies (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 4.14

*Effect Size ( $f^2$ )*

Construct	DLoyalty	Satisfaction
Satisfaction	0.092	
DImage	0.035	0.013
DFamiliarity	0.011	0.000
PAuthenticity	0.010	0.018
TInteractions	0.035	0.227
TEmotions	0.021	0.050

In addition to assessing the  $R^2$  values, the  $f^2$  effect size was also assessed to look at the impact of the exogenous construct that has been removed on the endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2017). The results of the  $f^2$  effect size is displayed in Table 4.14 and the guidelines by Cohen (1988) where  $f^2$  effect size values are categorized as small (0.02), medium (0.15) and large effect (0.35) were observed.

Based on the guidelines, it can be seen that destination familiarity and perceived authenticity have no effect on destination loyalty. This is not really a surprise because destination familiarity did not have a significant impact on destination loyalty and the path coefficient for the relationship perceived authenticity and destination was the lowest at only 0.096. Satisfaction, destination image, tourist interactions and tourist emotions showed only a small effect on destination loyalty because all the effect sizes were above 0.02. On the other hand, destination image and destination familiarity had no effect on satisfaction but perceived authenticity and tourist emotions had a small effect while tourist interactions had a medium effect on satisfaction. Since the predictive accuracy and effect size have been evaluated, it is also important to assess



the predictive relevance of the model. This is particularly important for PLS-SEM because it focuses on the prediction objective.

#### 4.6.4 Predictive Relevance ( $Q^2$ ) and Effect Size ( $q^2$ )

Besides focusing on the predictive accuracy of the structural model, the predictive relevance of the model was also examined using Stone-Geisser's  $Q^2$  value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The blindfolding procedure with the omission distance of five was applied to the path model using the cross-validated redundancy approach to obtain  $Q^2$ . In this study, the  $Q^2$  values of satisfaction and destination loyalty are 0.634 and 0.437 respectively. These values are larger than zero and therefore, imply that the model has predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017) for satisfaction and destination loyalty. After determining the predictive relevance, it was also important to identify the  $q^2$  effect size to determine the impact of predictive relevance. The guidelines used for the  $q^2$  effect size values were small (0.02), medium (0.15) and large (0.35) prediction relevance on the endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Based on the results that are presented in Table 4.15, only satisfaction has a small predictive relevance for destination loyalty. On the other hand, tourist interactions has a small effect and tourist emotions has a medium effect for the predictive relevance of satisfaction.

Table 4.15  
*Effect Size ( $q^2$ ) of Predictive Relevance*

Construct	DLoyalty	Satisfaction
Satisfaction	0.028	
DImage	0.011	0.011
DFamiliarity	0.004	-0.008
PAuthenticity	0.002	0.008
TInteractions	0.014	0.041
TEmotions	0.009	0.191

#### 4.6.5 Model Fit Assessment

Assessing overall model fit in the context of PLS-SEM provides little value (Hair et al., 2017) but some researchers believe that in the new consistent PLS, global model fit can be assessed through fit indices and tests of model fit (Henseler et al., 2016). Therefore, the assessment of model fit was also conducted for this study. In order to avoid model misspecification, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was introduced as a goodness of fit measure (Henseler et al., 2014). The cut-off value of 0.08 can be used to test model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Henseler et al., 2016). The SRMR for this study was 0.034 which is below 0.08. Therefore, model fit can be assumed for this study.

In addition to SRMR values, Root Mean Square Residual Covariance ( $RMS_{\theta}$ ) was also suggested as another alternative to the model fit measure (Hair et al., 2017). The  $RMS_{\theta}$  threshold as simulated in the study by Henseler et al. (2014) indicates that values below 0.12 is a well-fitting model. For this study, the  $RMS_{\theta}$  value was just below 0.12 at 0.119 and this assumes model fit.

#### 4.7 MEDIATION ANALYSIS

Since the measurement and structural model assessment were completed and model fit was assumed, further analysis was conducted on the mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationship between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions on destination loyalty. Bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effect was performed to test

the mediating effect because it provided higher statistical power than the Sobel test and it is more applicable for the use of PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017).

Once the bootstrapping was conducted, the indirect effects of the exogenous construct on destination loyalty were reviewed. The results presented in Table 4.16 show that the indirect effects of destination image, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions were significant but the indirect effect of destination familiarity was not significant. The indirect effect (0.029) of destination image to the destination loyalty relationship was significant at the 1% level with  $p$  value of 0.040,  $t$  value of 2.052 and the 95% confidence interval did not include zero. Similarly, the indirect effect (0.039) of perceived authenticity to the destination loyalty relationship had  $p$  value of 0.013,  $t$  value of 2.495 and the 95% confidence interval did not include zero and therefore was also significant. The indirect effect (0.062) of tourist interactions to the destination loyalty relationship was also significant and obtained a  $p$  value of 0.001,  $t$  value of 3.206 and the 95% confidence interval did not include zero. The indirect effect (0.141) of tourist emotions to destination loyalty was the highest and had a  $p$  value of 0.000,  $t$  value of 5.024 and the 95% confidence interval did not include zero.

After identifying the significance of the indirect effect, the significance of the direct effect was compared in order to determine the mediating effect of satisfaction. The results in Table 4.16 indicates that the direct effect of destination image, tourist interactions and tourist emotions were significant while the direct effect of destination familiarity and perceived authenticity were not significant.





In determining the mediating effect, the guidelines provided by Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) and Hair et al. (2017) were adopted. As presented in the table, it can be concluded that satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty, perceived authenticity and destination loyalty, tourist interactions and destination loyalty and tourist emotions and destination loyalty because both the direct and indirect effects for these four relationships were significant. In addition, since both direct and indirect effects were positive, it shows that satisfaction has a complementary mediation on these four relationships.

However, conclusions can be made that satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty because both the direct and indirect effect were not significant. Overall, these findings provide support for the hypotheses of H7a, H7c, H7d and H7e but reject H7b. In addition to assessing mediating effect, the moderation analysis based on multigroup analysis was also conducted and this is discussed in the next section.

#### **4.8 MODERATION ANALYSIS – MULTIGROUP ANALYSIS (MGA)**

Tourists' characteristics was hypothesized as the moderating variable between the relationship of satisfaction and destination loyalty. The tourists' characteristics that were tested for moderating effects were age, gender and nationality. The multigroup analysis (MGA) conducted was based on Henseler's MGA that does not depend on distributional assumptions (Sarstedt, Henseler, & Ringle, 2011). Based on the results presented in Table 4.17, age, gender and nationality do not significantly moderate the satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship. This is because the  $p$  value

differences of the path coefficients are not lower than 0.05 or higher than 0.95 at the 5% significance level (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Sarstedt et al., 2011). Therefore, hypotheses H8a, H8b and H8c are not supported.

Table 4.17

*Moderating Effects of Age, Gender and Nationality on the Relationship between Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty*

Hypothesis	Moderating Variable	$\beta^a$	$\beta^b$	Path Coefficients Difference a-b	p Value Difference	Support?
H8a	Age (Young <sup>a</sup> vs Old <sup>b</sup> )	0.352	0.289	0.063	0.300	No
H8b	Gender (Male <sup>a</sup> vs Female <sup>b</sup> )	0.112	0.236	0.061	0.744	No
H8c	Nationality (Asians <sup>a</sup> vs Non-Asians <sup>b</sup> )	0.274	0.339	0.065	0.709	No

Although the hypotheses for the moderating effect of age, gender and nationality on satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship were not supported, other interesting findings were found from the results of MGA. The findings presented in Table 4.18 show significant differences of the effects of tourist emotions on satisfaction among older and younger tourists and between male and female tourists. The effects of tourist emotions on satisfaction are higher for younger tourists than older tourists and higher for male tourists than female tourists.

The results also show significant differences between the effects of destination familiarity on satisfaction among younger and older tourists. There is a negative effect of destination familiarity on satisfaction for younger tourists as compared to older tourists, which means that the higher the familiarity for younger tourists, the lower the satisfaction of these tourists.



Table 4.18

*Multigroup Analysis of Age, Gender and Nationality on Destination Loyalty Model*

Age (Young versus Old)					
Paths	$\beta$ (Young)	$\beta$ (Old)	$\beta$ Difference	p Value Difference	Significant?
DFamiliarity→ DLoyalty	0.028	0.196	0.169	0.933	No
DFamiliarity→ Satisfaction	-0.074	0.202	0.276	0.996	Yes
DImage→ DLoyalty	0.102	0.022	0.080	0.228	No
DImage → Satisfaction	0.173	0.020	0.153	0.074	No
PAuthenticity→ DLoyalty	0.149	0.088	0.062	0.284	No
PAuthenticity → Satisfaction	0.095	0.029	0.066	0.271	No
TEmotions → DLoyalty	0.140	0.221	0.082	0.727	No
TEmotions → Satisfaction	0.592	0.310	0.282	0.027	Yes
TInteractions→ DLoyalty	0.195	0.095	0.100	0.211	No
TInteractions → Satisfaction	0.136	0.318	0.182	0.940	No
Gender (Male versus Female)					
Paths	$\beta$ (Male)	$\beta$ (Female)	$\beta$ Difference	p Value Difference	Significant?
DFamiliarity→ DLoyalty	-0.031	0.222	0.253	0.005	Yes
DFamiliarity→ Satisfaction	-0.058	0.058	0.115	0.091	No
DImage→ DLoyalty	0.175	0.111	0.063	0.752	No
DImage → Satisfaction	0.109	0.076	0.033	0.654	No
PAuthenticity→ DLoyalty	0.052	0.129	0.077	0.210	No
PAuthenticity→ Satisfaction	0.128	0.110	0.018	0.580	No
TEmotions→ DLoyalty	-0.236	0.112	0.124	0.863	No
TEmotions → Satisfaction	0.598	0.368	0.229	0.978	Yes
TInteractions→ DLoyalty	0.209	0.151	0.058	0.712	No
TInteractions → Satisfaction	0.127	0.302	0.175	0.044	Yes
Nationality (Asians versus Non Asians)					
Paths	$\beta$ (Asians)	$\beta$ (Non-Asians)	$\beta$ Difference	p Value Difference	Significant?
DFamiliarity→ DLoyalty	0.044	0.178	0.134	0.856	No
DFamiliarity → Satisfaction	-0.040	0.076	0.116	0.899	No
DImage→ DLoyalty	0.165	0.120	0.046	0.320	No
DImage → Satisfaction	0.073	0.185	0.112	0.910	No
PAuthenticity→ DLoyalty	0.082	0.111	0.029	0.595	No
PAuthenticity→ Satisfaction	0.104	0.172	0.068	0.751	No
TEmotions→ DLoyalty	0.257	-0.003	0.260	0.030	Yes
TEmotions → Satisfaction	0.528	0.395	0.133	0.120	No
TInteractions→ DLoyalty	0.158	0.189	0.031	0.603	No
TInteractions → Satisfaction	0.214	0.154	0.060	0.274	No

The results indicate significant differences for the path coefficients of the destination familiarity and destination loyalty relationship between male and female tourists. There seems to be a negative effect of destination familiarity on destination loyalty for female tourists. This means that the more familiar a female tourist is with the cultural heritage site, the less loyal the female tourist is to the site. On the other hand, male tourists who are more familiar with a cultural heritage site are more likely to be loyal to the site.

There is also a significant difference between the effects of tourist interactions on satisfaction among male and female tourists. The effects of tourist interactions on satisfaction is higher for female tourists than for male tourists. This indicates that female tourists who have higher chances of interactions at cultural heritage sites are more likely to be satisfied with their visit to the sites.

Lastly, there are significant differences for path coefficients of tourist emotions and destination loyalty relationship for Asians versus non-Asians. Asians seem to be more affected by their emotions as compared to non-Asians in terms of loyalty to cultural heritage sites, as the path coefficient for Asians are higher.

#### **4.9SUMMARY**

Overall, this chapter provided detailed explanations of the results of the tests that were conducted for this study. The necessary data screening tests such as missing data analysis, suspicious response patterns, outliers and data normality were explained and provided sufficient outcome to proceed with PLS-SEM analysis. The respondents'

response rate was high and there was an almost equal distribution of tourists who participated in the survey. This study was modelled using a reflective-formative hierarchical component model with five higher order (second-order) constructs and fifteen first-order constructs. The second-order constructs consist of destination loyalty, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions. Internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the reflective measurement models were established, as the indicators' loadings were above 0.60, AVE of the constructs were above 0.50 and HTMT was below 0.90. The formative measurement models did not indicate any collinearity issues, as the indicators had VIF values below five. Moreover, all the outer weights of the formative indicators for second-order constructs were significant. The hypothesized model was tested and showed an overall model fit in measuring the relationship of the constructs. Destination loyalty had a  $R^2$  value of 0.689, which was substantial because it implied that 68.9% of the variance in destination loyalty was explained by satisfaction, destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions. In general, the empirical results of this study provided support for the proposed conceptual model. In addition, the mediation analysis also indicated a significant effect for most relationships but the moderation analysis showed insignificant differences for all moderating variables. The next chapter will provide a detailed discussion of the results.



## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides a summary of the study and consists of five main sections. The first section provides an introduction to the chapter while the second section recaps the findings. The third section provides further discussion and conclusions on the results of the study. The fourth section looks into the contributions of the study from a theoretical, methodological and managerial point of view. The last section of this chapter addresses the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for possible future research opportunities.

#### **5.2 RECAPITULATION OF THE STUDY AND ITS FINDINGS**

This study extends the existing literature on destination loyalty by examining the determinants of destination loyalty, particularly at cultural heritage sites. In the context of this study, destination loyalty is operationalized as attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and experiential loyalty where the indicators of loyalty consist of revisit intention, willingness to recommend and loyalty to visiting experiences of cultural heritage sites. Based on this conceptualization of destination loyalty, this study investigates the relationship between destination loyalty construct with destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and satisfaction constructs. The moderating role of tourist

characteristics (age, gender, nationality) and the mediating role of satisfaction are also explored.

This study is an exploratory study that looks into a destination loyalty model for cultural heritage sites. This study focuses on eight specific research objectives that are based on eight specific research questions. The first objective is to identify the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. The second objective is to examine the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty. The third objective is to examine the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty. The fourth is to examine the relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty. The fifth objective is to examine the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty. The sixth objective is to examine the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty. The seventh objective is to identify if there is a mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationships between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty. The eighth objective is to examine the moderating effect of tourist characteristics on the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty.

In order to address the objectives of this study, a quantitative research approach based on the postpositivism paradigm was employed. A cross-sectional design was used and data were collected from international tourists at cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang in Malaysia. Five hundred tourists were approached and 448 useable questionnaires were obtained, which yielded a useable rate of 92.75%. The collected data was keyed in to SPSS for data screening and generation of descriptive

statistics while SmartPLS 3.27 was used for partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) and analysis.

In addressing the first research objective, the results of this study found that there exists a positive relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. Similarly, the results of this current study also found that destination image exerts a significant influence on destination loyalty, which addresses the second research objective. With regards to research objective three, it was revealed that there is an insignificant relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty. With reference to objective four, there is a significant relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty. The results of this current study also identified significant relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty, as per the fifth research objective.

For the sixth research objective, this was also addressed with significant finding of positive relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty. Satisfaction was found to mediate the relationship between destination image, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty. This addresses the seventh research objective. With regards to the eighth research objective, it was found that tourist characteristics did not have a moderating effect on the satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship. Overall, all eight research questions were answered and out of the eight main hypotheses, six were supported and two were not supported. Further discussion on the relationships of the constructs of this study will continue in the next section.



## 5.3 DISCUSSION

This section discusses further the interpretation of the findings related to the determinants of destination loyalty. It elaborates on the relationship of the exogenous constructs with destination loyalty, explains the mediating role of satisfaction and the moderating role of tourists' characteristics.

### 5.3.1 Relationship between Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty

As mentioned in the previous section, the results of this current study revealed that satisfaction has a significant positive relationship with destination loyalty. This is consistent with the findings of the Tourism Destination Loyalty Theory (TDLT) by Yoon and Uysal (2005), where satisfaction influenced destination loyalty positively and that satisfaction was confirmed to be a determinant of loyalty. The results of this current study also corroborates with previous studies in tourism that showed significant relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Campon-Cerro, Hernández-Mogollon, & Alves, 2017; Matsuoka, Hallak, Murayama, & Akiike, 2017; Wang, Yang, Han, & Shi, 2017; Wu, 2016). The literature examined destination loyalty in the context of intention to return or revisit and intention to recommend the destination to others. The conceptualization of destination loyalty in this current study is similar to that of the literature, but with the addition of experiential loyalty included where tourists are loyal to the experiences gained from cultural heritage sites. This finding indicates that tourists who are satisfied with their visit to a cultural heritage site is likely to develop affective, behavioural and experiential destination loyalty.

The results of this current study also found that satisfaction is the stronger predictor of destination loyalty amongst all other constructs and this conforms to a recent study

conducted in Australia (Hallak, Assaker, & El-Haddad, 2018). The authors there provided evidence that satisfaction had a significant positive effect on loyalty in the form of intention to revisit, willingness to spread positive word of mouth and intention to recommend the destination to family and friends.

As this current study was conducted in Melaka and Penang, Malaysia, the results extends on the empirical evidence found in the study conducted by Teo et al. (2014) in Melaka and the studies conducted in Penang (Maghsoodi Tilaki, Marzbali, Abdullah, & Bahauddin, 2016; Mat Som et al., 2011; Shirazi & Mat Som, 2013). This is evident that the satisfied tourists who visited the cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Penang will eventually recommend or revisit the same sites or similar sites in the future.

These results also confirms the findings of similar destination loyalty studies done in other cultural heritage sites in Asia (Chen & Chen, 2010; Chen & Phou, 2013; Gaffar et al., 2011; Su et al., 2017; Wu & Li, 2014). The findings of the current study also supports the studies done in other more established UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Spain such as La Sagrada Familia (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012) and Segovia (Antón, Camarero, & Laguna-García, 2017). Therefore, the findings of the current study is comparable with previous studies and will be useful for destination managers to ensure that the overall satisfaction experience of tourists at cultural heritage sites is given lots of attention. Furthermore, satisfaction has been suggested to be the most

important determinant of destination loyalty due to its significant impact on destination selection (Gursoy & Chen, 2014). This is very logical because if a tourist is evaluating his/her overall experience at a destination as satisfactory, he/she will

most likely have a positive feeling about the destination and may eventually return for another visit in future to reminisce on their experience. Although it has been established that satisfaction has a significant positive influence on destination loyalty, the examination of other possible antecedents of loyalty to better predict this construct has been suggested (Kumar et al., 2013). In the next sub-section, the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty will be discussed.

### **5.3.2 Relationship between Destination Image and Destination Loyalty**

The current study also investigated the influence of destination image on destination loyalty. Based on the results of this current study, it was found that destination image has a direct effect on destination loyalty. This further validates the findings of other studies conducted in Malaysia that examined the influence of destination image on destination loyalty (Maghsoodi et al., 2016; Mat Som & Badarneh, 2011; Mohamad et al., 2014). Moreover, the results indicate that tourists' perceived image of both Melaka and Georgetown, Penang are largely based on the history, reputation and historical sites of these two cities. Thus, the overall image of Melaka and Georgetown, Penang can have an effect on the destination loyalty of tourists.

The significant path from destination image to destination loyalty found in this current study infers that the image of the cultural heritage sites has a significant influence on the destination loyalty of tourists and this supports the findings of a study done in other cultural heritage sites (Kastenholz et al., 2013). Additionally, the results of this current study corroborates with recent research that established links between destination image and destination loyalty (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Assaker et al.,



2015; Campón-Cerro, Hernández-Mogollón, & Alves, 2017; Chung & Chen, 2018; Wu, 2016).

As the current study has destination loyalty indicators related to intention to revisit and intention to recommend, the influence of destination image on destination loyalty also confirms the findings by Vo Thanh, Tran, and Dang (2018) that destination image influences intention to revisit and intention to recommend to others. Furthermore, the current study results conforms to the findings by Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018), where destination image influences horizontal loyalty and destination loyalty. Horizontal loyalty occurs when tourists are loyal to more than one brand in the same level within the tourism system (McKercher et al., 2012). This is illustrated in the context of tourists being loyal to more than one hotel brand in a destination.

The results of this current study indicates that destination image is a predictor of destination loyalty. The reason for this positive relationship may be due to the ability of the image in influencing the subjective perception, subsequent behaviour and destination choice of tourists (Gursoy, Chen, & Chi, 2014). Therefore, if the overall perceived image of a destination is positive, it can have an impact in the decision making process. This means that if the image of Melaka and Georgetown, Penang is positive, more tourists will be willing to recommend the sites to their family or friends, will have an intention to return for future visits and/or will have the intention to visit other similar cultural heritage sites in Malaysia. Therefore, it is vital to maintain a positive image of these sites. It is also important to pay attention to the

image of a destination because it will result in increasing tourism receipts, income, employment and government revenues (Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015).

### **5.3.3 Relationship between Destination Familiarity and Destination Loyalty**

In this current study, destination familiarity did not have any significant effect on destination loyalty. This infers that tourists who are familiar with Melaka and Georgetown, Penang will not likely be loyal to these sites. This finding relates to a recent study by Tan and Wu (2016), where the authors found that educational, self-assured and expected familiarity did not have an influence on the future visit intention of tourists to Hong Kong. Educational familiarity refers to familiarity through one's own learning which can be linked to destination familiarity in the current study which includes familiarity through knowledge obtained from previous experience and self-learning of information about the destination. Furthermore, Tan and Wu (2016) established that self-described and proximate familiarity did not have an influence on future intention to visit amongst previous visitors. Repeat visitors are usually more familiar with a particular destination and may want to look for other new destinations. This may be due to the novelty factor where tourists want to look for something new when they are travelling and novelty has been proven to have an influence on destination loyalty (Albaity & Melhem, 2017). Moreover, Jang and Feng (2007) postulated that novelty is the opposite of familiarity and Assaker, Vinzi, and O'Connor (2011) provided empirical evidence that novelty seeking has a negative effect on immediate revisits. This implies that when novelty seeking behaviour is higher, the less likely the tourist will return in the near future. Therefore, in the context of the current study, the presence of the novelty factor may be one reason why destination familiarity did not have a significant influence on destination loyalty.

Although the findings of the current study indicates that destination familiarity does not have an influence on destination loyalty, this contradicts with previous literature (Kozak et al., 2004; Wee et al., 2012), that have established the links between familiarity and intention to revisit. The inconsistencies of the findings in literature may be due to the addition of informational familiarity as an indicator in the current study, as previous literature focussed mainly on a single dimension of previous experience as destination familiarity. Another possible reason for contradictory findings may be due to the various conceptualizations of familiarity by researchers (Tan, 2017).

#### **5.3.4 Relationship between Perceived Authenticity and Destination Loyalty**

The current study investigated the influence of perceived authenticity on destination loyalty. Based on the results of this current study, it was found that perceived authenticity had a significant influence on destination loyalty. This basically infers that tourists who perceived their experience and cultural heritage buildings in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang to be authentic were more likely to have the intention to recommend the sites to others or to revisit the same or similar sites. This further validates the findings of other studies on cultural heritage sites that found existential authenticity and object-based authenticity to have significant influence on loyalty (Bryce, Curran, O'Gorman, & Taheri, 2015; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; Zhou et al., 2013). The results also corroborates with previous literature that postulated a significant relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty (Kolar & Zabkar, 2007; Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011; Yi, Fu, Yu, & Jiang, 2018). This



indicates that authenticity is an important factor in maintaining the loyalty of tourists at cultural heritage sites.

As discussed in the previous chapter, existential authenticity carries a higher weightage than object-based authenticity. Moreover, Shen et al. (2014) found that only existential authenticity had a significant influence on destination loyalty. These findings can conclude that the perceived authentic experience of tourists plays a more vital role in developing their loyalty behaviour. This is understandable because in cultural heritage settings the sites are mostly buildings, monuments, statues, shophouses and so on that will not change that much, especially in the case of Melaka and Georgetown that are governed by the regulations under UNESCO World Heritage Sites. Furthermore, a study of two UNESCO World Heritage Sites in China found that postmodern authenticity moderated the relationship between architectural heritage and existential authenticity (Yi et al., 2018). Postmodern authenticity refers to tourists who focus more on experience and may not worry too much about the authenticity of objects or the architecture of the building. This is further supported by Zatori, Smith, and Puczko (2018) who confirm the influence of social experience involvement on perceived authenticity. These findings basically imply that tourists will be loyal to cultural heritage sites if their perceived authenticity of the sites are accompanied with experiences that are perceived to be authentic.

### **5.3.5 Relationship between Tourist Interactions and Destination Loyalty**

The current study found that tourist interactions had a significant influence on destination loyalty. This implies that tourists at cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang are very likely to recommend the same site to others, have the

intention to revisit the same site or other sites that provide similar experiences if they have good interactions with the tourists or locals at the site. The results of the current study supports the notion by Morais et al. (2004) where a focus on understanding customer-to-customer interactions can have an impact on customer loyalty. Furthermore, the results of the current study is consistent with the review by Li, Xie and Hu (2018) who suggested that the interactions between tourists in mountain-type scenic spots can have an impact on tourist behaviour and eventually their experience.

The findings of this current study also confirms the findings of existing literature where tourist interactions can influence tourist experience. Huang and Hsu (2010) found in their studies that interaction significantly influences the overall cruise experience and satisfaction of tourists. Similarly, the results of the current study echoes those of another study conducted on pilgrims who had completed the Route of Santiago, found that interactions can influence tourist experience and satisfaction (Millán et al., 2016).

Based on White and White (2009), tourists are keen to seek for companionship of others in their backpacking trip. This is an important factor in tourist behaviour and as found in this current study, tourist interactions (which includes tourist-to-tourist interactions) have a direct influence on destination loyalty. This infers that tourists at cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang enjoy the interaction with other tourists and it influences their destination loyalty. One possible reason for the positive relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty is the positive experience gained from the interactions. When a tourist has positive interaction with other tourists or locals, it will contribute to the overall evaluation of the visit. This can

eventually lead the tourist to share his/her experience with others or have the intention to return to the destination to reminisce that interaction with the locals or meeting other tourists. As highlighted in recent literature, a close and friendly interaction will create a positive experience (Millán et al., 2016).

The results of the current study supports the discussion by Bimonte and Punzo (2016) that host and guest interactions can influence their attitudes and opinions. Therefore, any activities that provides the opportunity for positive interactions between tourists and locals will be beneficial in influencing the loyalty behaviour of tourists. This is particularly valuable in cultural heritage settings and has the potential to increase the perceived existential authenticity of tourists.

#### **5.3.6 Relationship between Tourist Emotions and Destination Loyalty**

Tourist emotions was found to have a significant direct influence on destination loyalty. This implies that when tourists develop emotional feelings toward the cultural heritage sites, they are more likely to recommend the sites to others, and have the intention to revisit the same site or to visit other similar cultural heritage sites. The results of this current study echoes that of Gnoth (1997), where emotions have been recognized as a predictor for future behaviour. This shows that emotions is an important predictor of destination loyalty and is of importance to tourism destinations (Palau-Saumell et al., 2012).

The findings of the current study is also consistent with the findings of existing literature by Hosany et al. (2015) and Prayag et al. (2013) where both studies have established significant relationship between tourist emotions and behavioural



intentions in Bangkok and Petra respectively. As the current study used the extended destination emotion scale that was developed by Hosany et al. (2015), it further confirms the significance of tourist emotions as a predictor of destination loyalty. Moreover, the current study was done in cultural heritage sites that were similar in context to the study conducted by Prayag et al. (2013). Cultural heritage tourists may have a tendency to be more emotionally attached to cultural heritage sites than to other nature-based, mountain-based or even scenery-based areas that have higher emphasis on the landscape of the destination.

The results of the current study also corroborates with previous studies in the context of shopping destinations (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007), cultural festival (Yang et al., 2011) and more recently in Safari Park in Northern Europe (Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2016). These studies found links between emotions and loyalty behaviour. A more significant study by Barnes et al. (2016) noted that revisit intentions were found to be positively affected by the positive emotions of tourists. The results of the current study and those of previous research in other types of destinations further validates the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty.

It is not surprising that there exists a positive relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty because emotions are linked with behavioural intentions (Prayag et al., 2015). When a tourist is feeling joyful or excited while visiting a cultural heritage site, it adds to the memorable experience of the tourist. In the long run, these memorable experience will foster favourable tourist behaviour towards the destination (Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017). Therefore, it is important to ensure that tourists develop positive emotions at the destination and this includes the

experience from tourist interactions because Kastenholz et al. (2013) discussed that the interactions with locals is part of the cultural tourist experience and it supports tourist emotions.

### **5.3.7 Mediating Role of Satisfaction**

One of the objectives of the current study was to investigate the mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationship between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty. Based on the results, the mediating effect of satisfaction was significant for four paths, which are DImage→DLoyalty, PAuthenticity→DLoyalty, TInteractions →DLoyalty and TEmotions →DLoyalty and insignificant for DFamiliarity →DLoyalty. This provides empirical support for the mediating role of satisfaction in the destination loyalty model.

As highlighted earlier, satisfaction mediates the relationship between destination image and destination loyalty. This implies that higher levels of destination image not only increase destination loyalty directly but also increase satisfaction, which eventually increase destination loyalty. Therefore, some of the effects of destination image on destination loyalty is explained by satisfaction. This basically means that the satisfaction of cultural heritage tourists in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang will enhance the effect of destination image on destination loyalty. This finding is not surprising because as Wu and Li (2014) stated, satisfaction refers to the overall satisfaction of the experience at a cultural heritage site. This is part of experiential satisfaction where a tourist will evaluate the overall experience when visiting a site and this includes evaluating the perceived image that relates to the experience.

Therefore, when a tourist has a positive image of a cultural heritage site, it will eventually lead to loyalty behaviour when the tourist is satisfied with the experience at cultural heritage site. This finding corroborates previous studies in Malaysia (Maghsoodi et al., 2016; Mohamad et al., 2014), in another cultural heritage site in China (Su et al., 2017) and other destinations (Albaity & Melhem, 2017; Assaker et al., 2015; Song, Su, & Li, 2013; Wang et al., 2017).

The results of this current study found that satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between destination familiarity and destination loyalty. As discussed in section 5.3.3, destination familiarity does not have a direct significant influence on destination loyalty. Similarly, there is also insignificant indirect influence on destination loyalty, which indicates insignificant mediating effect of satisfaction. It was mentioned earlier that there are many reasons for the insignificant influence of destination familiarity on destination loyalty and one of the reasons was the novelty factor where tourists are looking for new destinations. This applies to the insignificant mediating effect of satisfaction because if tourists are looking for new destinations or experiences, their loyalty will still be the same even though they are satisfied with their current visit to the cultural heritage site. This argument is supported by the findings of Albaity and Melhem (2017) where satisfaction mediates the relationship between novelty seeking and destination loyalty.

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Satisfaction was found to mediate the relationship between perceived authenticity and destination loyalty. This infers that the perceived authenticity of tourists at cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang will have a higher influence on destination loyalty when the tourists are also satisfied with their visit to those sites.



One of the reason for this mediating influence was due to the importance of authenticity as discussed earlier. Perceived authenticity was examined as both existential and object-based authenticity in this current study. When a tourist visits a cultural heritage site and evaluates the physical aspect of the site as well as the overall experience at the site, the tourist will display higher loyalty behaviour when the tourist feels satisfied with the perceived authenticity of the site. This finding shows that perceived authenticity is related to both satisfaction and loyalty and supports the findings by Kolar and Zabkar (2007) where perceived authenticity is positively related to satisfaction and loyalty.

The results of this current study also found a significant mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty. This implies that the more positive the interactions of tourists at a cultural heritage site, the higher the influence they will have on destination loyalty when they are satisfied with their experience at the site. This is because the positive experience gained from tourist interactions contributes to tourist satisfaction. When tourist interactions increase, they can create higher satisfaction, which can eventually lead to loyalty of tourist towards the cultural heritage site. This means that when a tourist interacts positively with other tourists or the locals at a cultural heritage site, he/she can gain a sense of satisfaction that will increase the tendency of the tourist to recommend the site to others or to return to the site in future. Therefore, there is a close relationship between tourist interactions and satisfaction. This finding is consistent with previous studies relating to tourist interactions. Papathanassis (2012) hypothesized that the behaviour of other guests on a cruise ship can influence the satisfaction of guests. Guest behaviours can be considered as part of tourist

interactions, if the guests behave well, there can be a positive interaction that takes place and this influences satisfaction. The links between interaction and satisfaction are also consistent with the findings by Huang and Hsu (2010) and Millan et al. (2016) where links exist between customer-to-customer interactions and satisfaction.

Lastly, satisfaction was found to mediate the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty. When tourists develop positive emotions, the influence on destination loyalty becomes higher when their satisfaction is higher. The reason for this significant mediating relationship is because of the nature of the satisfaction construct. Satisfaction has been identified as the emotional response that comes from consumption experience (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013). This means that satisfaction has strong links with emotions and therefore it is not surprising that it mediates the relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, tourist emotions adds on to memorable tourist experiences. When a tourist is satisfied with the experience because of tourist emotions, it increases the influence of tourist emotions on destination loyalty. This confirms the findings of previous literature (Hosany S., Prayag, Van Der Veen, Huang, & Deesilatham, 2016) where satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive and negative emotions and intention to recommend.

### **5.3.8 Moderating Role of Tourist Characteristics**

Tourist characteristics was investigated as a moderator consisting of age, gender and nationality. The multigroup analysis results did not identify any significant differences in the path coefficients of satisfaction and loyalty caused by age. This implies that there is no significant difference in the path coefficients between younger

and older tourists and that age does not moderate the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty. This finding coincides with previous research on a destination loyalty model in cultural heritage sites (Chi, 2011). It was found that the structural paths in the model were not significantly different based on age. One of the underlying reasons for this finding can be due to the destination itself, which is a cultural heritage site. Tourists who are satisfied visiting a cultural heritage site can be from different age groups and those who are loyal to the site may be the ones who prefer to visit a cultural heritage destination. Therefore, the influence of satisfaction on destination loyalty is the same regardless of whether they are younger or older tourists.

Similarly, the results of the current study found that the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty was not moderated by gender, as the path coefficients were not significantly different. This echoes the findings of recent literature (Assaker et al., 2015) where gender did not moderate the satisfaction and destination loyalty relationship. The results of this current study also supports the findings by Chi (2011) where the path coefficients in the destination loyalty model were not significantly different based on gender. Similar to the discussion on age groups, tourists who visit cultural heritage sites have a tendency to choose the sites because of individual preference and therefore, the influence of satisfaction on destination loyalty is the same among male and female tourists. Furthermore, the decision making process is the same for any age or gender groups.

The multigroup analysis results of the current study also did not identify any significant differences in the path coefficients of satisfaction and loyalty caused by



nationality. This indicates that the satisfaction and destination loyalty structural relationship does not differ between Asians and non-Asians. This is consistent with the findings of previous literature (Assaker et al, 2015) where nationality did not contribute to any significant differences in the destination image-satisfaction-destination loyalty model.

One possible reason for the insignificant differences across tourist characteristics may be the stronger influence of other constructs as predictors of destination loyalty in this study. This is explained through the  $R^2$  value of destination loyalty, which is substantial at 0.689. Although the results of the moderating effect of tourist characteristics differ from other literature that showed significant differences (Gaffar et al., 2011; Teo et al., 2014), it is still worthwhile researching tourist characteristics. This is because tourist characteristics play an important role in segmentation research (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003) and can assist destination marketers to differentiate products and services for tourists (Prayag, 2012).

## **5.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH**

The findings of the current study provides several theoretical, methodological and practical implications relevant to cultural heritage tourism. These implications are discussed in the following sub-sections.

### **5.4.1 Theoretical Implications**

From a theoretical perspective, the current study extends the cultural heritage tourism literature especially in the context of cultural heritage sites in Malaysia. In the past,

most literature on cultural heritage tourism was on preservation and conservation but limited studies were done on the experiential aspect of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites (Waterton & Watson, 2010). In order to fill this gap in the literature, the current study focused on the destination loyalty of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites.

Campon-Cerro et al. (2017) suggested to include emotions, authenticity and familiarity factors for future research on destination loyalty. These three factors were added as determinants of destination loyalty in the framework of the current study. Therefore, the current study contributes to the cultural heritage tourism literature by investigating the relationship of destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and destination loyalty in a structural model. This enhances the theoretical foundations of the predictors of destination loyalty.

According to Gursoy et al. (2014), further research should examine the antecedents of destination loyalty in cross-cultural settings. The current study is based on data collected from international tourists who were visiting Melaka and Georgetown, Penang in Malaysia, which is a multicultural country with many cultural heritage sites that represent the different ethnicities and cultural background of the country. Therefore, the current study has theoretical implications for studies done in cross-cultural settings and extends the literature in the context of Malaysia (Maghsoodi, et al., 2016; Teo et al., 2014) where separate studies on destination loyalty were done in either Melaka or Penang. This current study has respondents from both places and

therefore providing a more comprehensive view of international tourists at cultural heritage sites.

Most literature on perceived authenticity in cultural heritage settings (Bryce et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2018) examines the relationship with destination loyalty but is limited on the mediating effect of satisfaction. Therefore, this study extends the knowledge in existing literature surrounding perceived authenticity, satisfaction and destination loyalty. In addition, the current study investigated the influence of existential authenticity on destination loyalty, as proposed by Yi, Lin, Jin, and Luo (2017). The results highlights the fact that existential authenticity explains more of perceived authenticity which then influences destination loyalty. Therefore, the present study makes a significant contribution to the cultural heritage tourism literature in the aspect of perceived authenticity and destination loyalty.

The study also contributes to the existing literature on the relationship between tourist interactions and destination loyalty as per Huang and Hsu (2010) who suggested conducting future research on the relationship between these two constructs. Furthermore, most existing literature on tourist-to-tourist interactions are within the cruise, group tours, backpacking context (Yang, 2016), and sports tourism (Morgan, 2007). This current study adds to existing literature in the context of cultural heritage tourism.

Tourist emotions was included in the destination loyalty model of the current study as suggested by Eusébio and Vieira (2013) to include emotions in the destination loyalty model for future research. This extends the literature on tourist experiences, where the



destination emotion scale items by Prayag et al. (2013) was used in the model of the present study and the results have successfully identified a relationship between tourist emotions and destination loyalty in cultural heritage settings.

The current study established that satisfaction has a mediating effect in the structural model and with the addition of satisfaction in the model, the variance explained is 68.9%. This expands on existing literature, where Kumar et al. (2013) suggested that with the addition of other antecedent variables, mediator and moderator in a model, it can increase the variance explained to an average of 34%. This current study also contributes further to the study by Shirazi and Mat Som (2013), where intention to recommend had almost 30% of the variances explained by satisfaction and destination attributes. In addition to investigating satisfaction as a mediator, tourist characteristics was also added as a moderator in the structural model in the current study. This is another contribution of this current study because it addresses the limited studies done on the moderating effect of tourists characteristics in cultural heritage settings.

#### **5.4.2 Methodological Implications**

In addition to the theoretical implications, the current study contributes to the methodological perspective. Most published literature examines a destination loyalty model with one to four constructs and usually in a unidimensional level. However, this current study advances the theoretical framework in destination loyalty research by investigating a structural model with fifteen first-order constructs and five second-order constructs. The current study measured destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and destination loyalty as

### 5.4.3 Practical and Policy Implications

Having examined the destination loyalty model in this current study, the results can assist destination managers at cultural heritage sites to have a better understanding of the predictors of destination loyalty. By knowing which are the predictors of destination loyalty, it allows destination managers to plan which aspect of the destination to improve and devise the necessary strategies for long-term sustainable development.

In addition to understanding the predictors of destination loyalty, destination managers will be able to identify the demographic profiles of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites. Based on the demographic profile of the current study, most tourists are middle to higher income earners who are single and have higher education. This information will be useful for destination managers to plan activities that can increase the spending of tourists while at cultural heritage sites. It was also identified that many of the tourists visiting cultural heritage sites are first time visitors and most tourists spent at least three or more days at the sites. This provides an opportunity for destination managers to target this group of tourists as future repeat tourists by generating strategies based on the findings of this current study. Moreover, destination managers can plan for relevant activities at the sites that can fit the schedule of the tourists for three or four days.

The demographic profile also found that tourists at cultural heritage sites obtained information about the sites through online platforms (Tourism Malaysia website, other travel websites – Trip Advisor, Expedia, etc.) and travel guide books. Destination marketers, Tourism Malaysia and the Penang and Melaka state

governments can focus their marketing and promotional efforts on these sources of information to target cultural heritage tourists in the future. Since Tourism Malaysia's website is one of the main sources of information on cultural heritage sites in the country, it will be useful to enhance the website content to match with the overall destination image indicators assessed in the present study.

Satisfaction was found to have the highest direct effect on destination loyalty and acts as a mediator in the structural relationships in this current study. This has practical implications for destination managers because it emphasizes the importance of satisfaction in influencing destination loyalty. Destination managers have to ensure that the tourists are satisfied during their visits at cultural heritage sites. Measures can be taken by all relevant parties such as the Penang and Melaka state governments, Tourism Malaysia and destination managers to monitor all aspects of the destinations including the image, authenticity of the sites and opportunities for tourist interactions. This will encourage the managers of other sites to adopt similar practices in obtaining loyal tourists.

Destination image is important for destinations because it can result in increasing tourism receipts, income, employment and government revenues (Ramseook-Munhurrin et al., 2015). Destination image has a direct and indirect effect on destination loyalty in the current study and the outer loadings of the destination image indicates that Melaka and Georgetown have perceived image based on their history, reputation and historical sites. Tourism Malaysia can use this information as a reference source to design their marketing and communication materials. The visuals, contents or even videos can showcase these three aspects to portray a positive image.



In 2019, there was an allocation of RM100 million by the Malaysia government to the private sector for promotional marketing campaigns to increase the number of tourists (Ministry of Finance Malaysia, 2018). This contributed to the growth of 3.7% international tourist arrivals (Tourism Malaysia, 2020). This effort should be continued by the government and private sector to promote more cultural heritages sites as destination image was found to exert a positive influence on destination loyalty.

Contrary to other literature, the present study found that destination familiarity did not have a direct effect on destination loyalty. It was discussed earlier that this may be due to the novelty factor. Destination managers should think of enhancing or upgrading existing facilities, activities or programmes at cultural heritage sites to provide a novelty feel to tourists. This will provide both first time and repeat visitors with a fresh experience which may be able to contribute to destination loyalty. This new experience can be related to experiences that are perceived by tourists to be authentic.

Managers of cultural heritage sites are constantly in a battle to decide if the authenticity of the site is based more on the architecture of the buildings or the stories about the history of the site, and if the authenticity influences loyalty of tourists. This current study reveals that perceived authenticity has direct effect on destination loyalty and existential authenticity contributes more to perceived authenticity. This information assists in clearing the doubts of destination managers of cultural heritage sites and to confirm that authenticity is indeed important in developing the loyalty of tourists. Looking at the relationship between authenticity and destination loyalty, local

councils, state governments and the Ministry of Tourism , Arts and Culture should work together to tighten the policy on the preservation of cultural heritage sites. This will assists in maintaining the authenticity of the sites for many more years to come. There should also be more collaboration amongst various ministries, state governments and the private sectors on restoration projects or development of new authentic activities to revive the interest of tourists and to ensure that the cultural heritage sites are preserved. For instance, the Sultan Abdul Samad Building in Kuala Lumpur needs urgent attention on restoration (Babulal & Sabri, 2019) to ensure the sustainability of the site for future generations to enjoy.

Destination managers can plan activities or programmes that incorporates and enhances authentic experiences such as KL Mud, a musical that illustrates the history of Kuala Lumpur. Another example is the recent theatre production known as Encore Melaka that just opened its doors to the public on 1<sup>st</sup> July 2018. This production showcases the history of Melaka using advanced technology in a facility that can host 2000 people. These types of performances can provide authentic experiences to tourists and enhance the satisfaction of tourists while maintaining the authenticity of the sites. Furthermore, these activities provide opportunities for tourist interactions. Besides cultural arts performances, tourism state governments can carefully plan for more homestay programmes that provide international tourists the opportunity to experience the authentic local culture and interact with the locals and other homestay guests.

Tourist-to-tourist interactions and tourist-to-local interactions are important for destinations because they can enhance the overall experience of tourists, particularly

in influencing destination loyalty, as found in the current study. Destination managers of cultural heritage sites can plan activities that encourage interactions with other tourists and locals. For example, destination managers and local councils can carefully select knowledgeable locals to conduct small group guided walking tours at the cultural heritage sites. These walking tours will provide a more personal experience that allows for interaction with other tourists and locals. Furthermore, it enhances the knowledge of the tourists about the sites and provides opportunities to develop friendship with other tourists and the locals. State governments and Tourism Malaysia can collaborate on devising suitable cultural heritage tours with the involvement of locals as guides to enhance the interaction aspect. State governments can also provide suitable trainings for the locals in terms of interacting with tourists and providing accurate stories about the cultural heritage sites. This will also enhance the authentic experience of tourists when locals share their stories of the cultural heritage sites.

Tourist interactions and tourist emotions are closely related to satisfaction with positive emotions being vital. The current study found that tourist emotions has the highest total effect on destination loyalty followed by satisfaction and tourist interactions. Therefore, it is important for destination marketers to put more emphasis in planning for programmes that enhance tourists' positive emotions and satisfaction. This can include any activities that involve other tourists, since it was highlighted earlier that tourist interactions was found to have a significant effect on destination loyalty. In addition, since unpleasantness was found to have a negative influence on tourist emotions, destination managers have to focus on measures to reduce negative emotions.



## **5.5 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Although the current study has successfully identified the predictors of destination loyalty, there are some limitations that needs to be considered. Firstly, the data collected for this current study was only based on the responses of international tourists at the cultural heritage sites in Melaka and Georgetown, Penang. Therefore, the results may not be applicable to all cultural heritage sites in other destinations because the cultural heritage settings may be different. There is opportunity to replicate this study in other cultural heritage sites to increase the generalization of the findings.

Second, the current study was conducted as a cross-sectional study and therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution. Possible future research can be conducted based on a longitudinal studies to monitor and compare the loyalty of tourists over time, especially on experiential loyalty.

Third, satisfaction was measured as an overall evaluation of the cultural heritage sites and did not look into the attributes of the destination that contributes to satisfaction or to the satisfaction attributes themselves. Future research can be conducted by having formative indicators for satisfaction that can be based on the attributes of the destination. This can allow for more definite findings on which aspect of satisfaction that will most likely increase satisfaction and eventually contribute to destination loyalty.

Fourth, the current study aimed to assess the relationship between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and destination loyalty but did not look at the influence of each construct on attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and experiential loyalty individually. Therefore, future research can be conducted to identify the effect of each construct on each of the three loyalty dimensions. This will provide a clearer idea for destination managers to determine which loyalty dimensions should be targeted.

Fifth, destination familiarity did not show any significant effect on destination loyalty and has been discussed as the opposite of novelty. Although there are tourism studies conducted on novelty seeking, future researchers can consider evaluating the influence of novelty on a satisfaction and destination loyalty model in the context of cultural heritage sites. This can increase the level of prediction of the destination loyalty model.

Sixth, tourist emotions was found to have the highest total effect in the structural model. In order to have more targeted planning of strategies to enhance tourists' positive emotions, it will be worth investigating the antecedents of tourist emotions in the future. Moreover, it will be helpful to conduct future research to assess if tourist interactions plays a moderating role in the relationship between tourist emotions and satisfaction.

Last but not least, the multigroup analysis in PLS can only be compared across two assigned groups. The grouping of tourist characteristics (age, gender, nationality) in assessing the moderating effect is only applicable for this current study. If the

groupings of each characteristics is assigned differently, the outcome of the study could have been different. Thus, future research can be conducted to assess different groupings of tourist characteristics or even to explore other methods in assessing the moderating effect of categorical variables in PLS.

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

The findings of the current study addresses the objectives and main research question of what are the factors that influences destination loyalty. The results indicated that destination loyalty is explained by destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions and satisfaction but destination familiarity does not have significant influence on destination loyalty. The findings provide useful information to destination managers for identifying which factor predicts destination loyalty the best. As such, destination managers will be able to devise suitable strategies for each predictor and emphasise the predictor with higher path coefficients. Satisfaction and tourist emotions were identified as strong predictors of destination loyalty and this provides additional evidence to support the growing body of knowledge in relations to destination loyalty in cultural heritage tourism studies. Furthermore, destination managers are able to determine that perceived authenticity does have an effect on the destination loyalty of tourists visiting cultural heritage sites.

The structural model for the current study was developed and assessed based on PLS-SEM. This provides theoretical and methodological contributions to tourism studies, as the number of studies in this discipline is relatively small despite its growing interest among tourism scholars. Furthermore, the use of MGA for assessing



moderating effect was applied in the context of cultural heritage tourism studies. The structural model on destination loyalty for this current study was investigated and valuable findings were obtained. It can be concluded that the model was feasible in assessing the relationship between destination image, destination familiarity, perceived authenticity, tourist interactions, tourist emotions, satisfaction and destination loyalty. Moreover, the findings of the current study was able to address the gaps in literature relating to these constructs, particularly on perceived authenticity, tourist interactions and tourist emotions.



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## APPENDIX

### APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

#### SCREENING QUESTION

1. What is the purpose of your visit to this site?

- ☐ Business (End of Survey)
- ☐ Visiting friends/ relatives (Continue to Section A)
- ☐ Holiday with family/friends (Continue to Section A)

#### SECTION A: TRAVEL INFORMATION

The following section lists down some questions relating to your travel information. Please tick (✓) the options that best represents your answer.

1. Where are the other cultural heritage sites in Malaysia that you have visited?

2. How many days are you staying in this destination?

- ☐ 1 day
- ☐ 2 days
- ☐ 3 days
- ☐ 4 days
- ☐ More than 4 days

3. How did you know about this site?

- ☐ Recommendation by family/friends
- ☐ Tourism Malaysia website
- ☐ Other travel websites like Trip Advisor, Expedia, etc.
- ☐ Travel guide books
- ☐ Tourist information center
- ☐ Others: Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

#### SECTION B: DESTINATION FACTORS

Please rate the following statements based on your level of agreement. (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree)



**Destination Image**

- |   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. This cultural heritage site has beautiful architectural buildings and historical sites.              |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2. This cultural heritage site is famous for its long history and reputation.                           |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3. This cultural heritage site reflects the historical colonial atmosphere and cultural blend.          |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4. This cultural heritage site has a good image as a tourist destination.                               |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. This cultural heritage site left me with a profound and good impression.                             |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. I believe that this cultural heritage site has a better image than other competitive destinations.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. The architectural buildings and historical sites in this cultural heritage site are well maintained. |   |   |   |   |   |
| 8. This cultural heritage site reflects the cultural diversity aspects of the locals.                   |   |   |   |   |   |

**Destination Familiarity**

- |   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than my acquaintances.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 10. I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than my friends.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 11. I am more familiar with this cultural heritage site than those who travel frequently.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 12. I am very familiar with information on this cultural heritage site.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13. I often spend time gathering information about this cultural heritage site.   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 14. I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the information obtained from travel guide books, magazines, travel brochures and the Internet. |   |   |   |   |   |
| 15. I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the stories told by friends and relatives in Malaysia.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 16. I am familiar with this cultural heritage site because of the stories told by friends and relatives who have been to Malaysia.                            |   |   |   |   |   |

**SECTION C: PERSONAL FACTORS**

Please rate the following statements based on your level of agreement. (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree)

<b>Perceived Authenticity</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
17. I feel that this cultural heritage site represent the ways of life of the locals.					
18. I like the uniqueness of the interior design of the historical buildings.					
19. The overall architecture and impressions of the buildings inspired me.					
20. I like the history about this cultural heritage site and found it interesting.					
21. I like the way this cultural heritage site blends with its surroundings.					
22. I like the special arrangements, events and celebrations connected to this cultural heritage site.					
23. This visit provided a thorough insight into the historical era of this cultural heritage site.					
24. During the visit, I felt the related history about this cultural heritage site.					
25. I enjoyed the unique religious and spiritual experience.					
26. I felt connected with the history of this cultural heritage site.					
<b>Tourist Interactions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
27. It was comfortable to be taking part in the activities at this cultural heritage site with my acquaintances.					
28. The other tourists at this cultural heritage site were friendly.					
29. It was interesting to be sharing the history of this cultural heritage site.					
30. I get to socialize with the other tourists at this cultural heritage site.					
31. The other tourists at this cultural heritage site started conversation with me.					
32. I have developed friendship with the locals.					
33. I enjoy interacting with the locals.					
34. My interactions with the locals are positive and useful.					
<b>Tourist Emotions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
35. I feel a sense of Joy towards this cultural heritage site.					
36. I feel a sense of Pleasure towards this cultural heritage site.					
37. I feel Cheerful towards this cultural heritage site.					
38. I feel a sense of Delight towards this cultural heritage site.					
39. I feel a sense of Enthusiasm towards this cultural heritage site.					
40. I feel a sense of Affection towards this cultural heritage site.					
41. I feel a sense of Love towards this cultural heritage site.					
42. I feel a sense of Tenderness towards this cultural					

	heritage site.				
43.	I feel <b>Warm-hearted</b> towards this cultural heritage site.				
44.	I feel a sense of <b>Caring</b> towards this cultural heritage site.				
45.	I feel <b>Fascinated</b> about this cultural heritage site.				
46.	I feel a sense of <b>Inspiration</b> towards this cultural heritage site.				
47.	I feel a sense of <b>Surprise</b> towards this cultural heritage site.				

## SECTION D: SATISFACTION

Satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
54. Visiting this cultural heritage site was a wonderful experience.					
55. I have really enjoyed the visit to this cultural heritage site.					
56. I really like this trip to this cultural heritage site.					
57. This cultural heritage site is exactly what I needed.					
58. It is worthwhile to be at this cultural heritage site.					
59. This cultural heritage site is one of the best destinations that I have ever visited.					
60. Overall, I am satisfied with my visit to this cultural heritage site.					

Please rate the following statements based on your level of agreement. (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree)



**Destination Loyalty**

	1	2	3	4	5
61. I will revisit this cultural heritage site.					
62. I will probably revisit this cultural heritage site in two years.					
63. If I could, I would visit this cultural heritage site again.					
64. I intend to revisit this cultural heritage site again.					
65. It is very likely that I will revisit this cultural heritage site in the future.					
66. I would recommend this cultural heritage site to other people.					

67. I would positively recommend this cultural heritage site to other people.
68. I would recommend this cultural heritage site to those who are planning for heritage travel.
69. I will speak highly of this cultural heritage site to my friends and relatives.
70. I will always say positive things about this cultural heritage site to other people.
71. I intend to visit other sites in Malaysia that provide cultural heritage experiences.
72. For my next holiday, I will choose a destination that has cultural heritage experiences.

**SECTION F: TOURIST CHARACTERISTICS**

1. Nationality:
2. Gender
  - ☐ Male
  - ☐ Female
3. Age
  - ☐ 18 to 23 years
  - ☐ 24 to 30 years
  - ☐ 31 to 40 years
  - ☐ 41 to 50 years
  - ☐ Above 51 years
4. Education Level
  - ☐ High School Certificate
  - ☐ Diploma
  - ☐ Bachelor's degree
  - ☐ Masters
  - ☐ PhD

5. Marital Status

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married with child
- ☐ Married without child
- ☐ Others: Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

6. Monthly income level

- ☐ USD 500 and below
- ☐ USD 501 – USD 1,000
- ☐ USD 1,001 – USD 1,500
- ☐ USD 1,501 – USD 2,000
- ☐ USD 2,001 and above

7. Is this your first visit to this site?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No: How many times have you visited this site? \_\_\_\_\_ (Proceed to question 8)

8. When was your last visit to this site?

- ☐ 3 – 6 months ago
- ☐ 7 – 12 months ago
- ☐ 1 – 2 years ago
- ☐ 3 – 5 years ago
- ☐ More 5 years ago

**THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART IN THE SURVEY!**

## APPENDIX B: OUTER LOADINGS AND AVE

Table 4.6

*Outer Loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)*

Constructs	Items kept	Items deleted	Item Loadings after deletion	Average Variance Extracted AVE
Destination Image	D_Image1	D_Image5	0.758	0.531
	D_Image2	D_Image6	0.779	
	D_Image3		0.731	
	D_Image4		0.724	
	D_Image7		0.653	
	D_Image8		0.723	
Destination Familiarity InfoFam	InfoFam1	None	0.725	0.581
	InfoFam2		0.753	
	InfoFam3		0.790	
	InfoFam4		0.780	
ExpFam	ExpFam1	None	0.750	0.529
	ExpFam2		0.687	
	ExpFam3		0.765	
	ExpFam4		0.704	
Perceived Authenticity ObjAut	OBAut1	None	0.794	0.658
	OBAut2		0.846	
	OBAut3		0.791	
ExisAut	ExisAut3	ExisAut1	0.639	0.536
	ExisAut4	ExisAut2	0.721	
	ExisAut5		0.757	
	ExisAut6		0.774	
	ExisAut7		0.762	
Tourist Interactions TTInt	TT Int1	TT Int5	0.807	0.575
	TT Int2		0.764	
	TT Int3		0.796	
	TT Int4		0.657	
TLInt	TL Int1	None	0.817	0.727
	TL Int2		0.899	
	TL Int3		0.839	



Table 4.6 (Continued)

Constructs	Items kept	Items deleted	Item Loadings after deletion	Average Variance Extracted AVE
Tourist Emotions				
Joy	Joy1	None	0.824	0.612
	Joy2		0.796	
	Joy3		0.833	
	Joy4		0.765	
	Joy5		0.682	
Love	Love1	None	0.707	0.567
	Love2		0.748	
	Love3		0.777	
	Love4		0.784	
	Love5		0.747	
PSurp	PSurp1	None	0.627	0.514
	PSurp2		0.752	
	PSurp3		0.719	
	PSurp4		0.769	
	PSurp5		0.710	
UnPle	UnPle1	None	0.806	0.709
	UnPle2		0.861	
	UnPle3		0.846	
	UnPle4		0.854	
Satisfaction	Satisfaction1	None	0.718	0.521
	Satisfaction2		0.720	
	Satisfaction3		0.770	
	Satisfaction4		0.747	
	Satisfaction5		0.766	
	Satisfaction6		0.637	
	Satisfaction7		0.687	
Destination Loyalty				
AttLoy	AttLoy1	None	0.721	0.567
	AttLoy2		0.749	
	AttLoy3		0.788	
	AttLoy4		0.773	
	AttLoy5		0.730	

Table 4.6 (Continued)

Constructs	Items kept	Items deleted	Item Loadings after deletion	Average Variance Extracted AVE
BehLoy	BehLoy1	None	0.775	0.562
	BehLoy2		0.703	
	BehLoy3		0.814	
	BehLoy4		0.778	
	BehLoy5		0.669	
Exp Loy	ExpLoy1	None	0.901	0.785
	ExpLoy2		0.871	



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# APPENDIX C OUTER LOADINGS AND CROSS LOADINGS

Table 4.7

Outer Loadings and Cross Loadings

	DImage	InfoFam	ExpFam	ObjAut	ExisAut	TLInt	Joy	Love	PSurp	UnPle	Satisfaction	AttLoy	BehLoy	ExpLoy	
	0.758	0.408	0.379	0.52	0.357	0.430	0.33	0.434	0.374	0.437	-0.03	0.4	0.409	0.489	0.334
D_Image1	0.779	0.390	0.45	0.507	0.406	0.470	0.335	0.456	0.39	0.429	-0.15	0.486	0.367	0.50	0.309
D_Image2	0.731	0.370	0.34	0.477	0.434	0.419	0.369	0.399	0.42	0.4	-0.114	0.488	0.399	0.415	0.49
D_Image3	0.724	0.378	0.369	0.469	0.408	0.409	0.339	0.42	0.37	0.386	-0.08	0.445	0.402	0.386	0.389
D_Image4	0.653	0.420	0.40	0.35	0.427	0.396	0.327	0.38	0.428	0.409	-0.02	0.438	0.389	0.446	0.400
D_Image7	0.723	0.393	0.463	0.43	0.40	0.430	0.403	0.4	0.416	0.48	-0.04	0.426	0.47	0.419	0.47
D_Image8	0.352	0.725	0.437	0.328	0.3	0.357	0.339	0.315	0.363	0.38	0.022	0.322	0.348	0.303	0.338
InfoFam	0.47	0.753	0.346	0.363	0.388	0.342	0.380	0.368	0.398	0.330	0.022	0.387	0.400	0.384	0.360
InfoFam2	0.425	0.790	0.378	0.377	0.40	0.352	0.377	0.382	0.342	0.344	-0.002	0.380	0.393	0.433	0.315
InfoFam3	0.448	0.780	0.449	0.46	0.407	0.365	0.356	0.357	0.388	0.398	0.00	0.403	0.387	0.42	0.339
InfoFam4	0.490	0.468	0.750	0.439	0.428	0.38	0.325	0.430	0.350	0.38	-0.011	0.42	0.358	0.403	0.311
ExpFam	0.362	0.322	0.687	0.314	0.274	0.277	0.7	0.340	0.306	0.280	0.006	0.265	0.244	0.38	0.73
ExpFam2	0.360	0.337	0.765	0.345	0.330	0.390	0.297	0.383	0.343	0.30	0.023	0.345	0.294	0.335	0.205
ExpFam3	0.384	0.399	0.704	0.33	0.343	0.400	0.38	0.348	0.338	0.374	0.038	0.377	0.325	0.307	0.333
ExpFam4	0.502	0.400	0.434	0.794	0.43	0.392	0.308	0.485	0.366	0.416	-0.064	0.468	0.380	0.462	0.256
OBAut	0.53	0.414	0.380	0.846	0.48	0.384	0.362	0.437	0.362	0.403	-0.096	0.443	0.380	0.472	0.33
OBAut2	0.502	0.4	0.39	0.791	0.405	0.387	0.40	0.47	0.373	0.372	-0.085	0.42	0.373	0.462	0.358
OBAut3	0.437	0.403	0.369	0.350	0.639	0.487	0.403	0.522	0.46	0.46	0.047	0.48	0.452	0.46	0.324
ExisAut3	0.428	0.324	0.36	0.406	0.721	0.455	0.385	0.466	0.432	0.393	0.049	0.463	0.434	0.445	0.308
ExisAut4	0.387	0.354	0.38	0.363	0.757	0.432	0.350	0.400	0.427	0.365	0.029	0.449	0.366	0.38	0.305
ExisAut5	0.374	0.323	0.305	0.333	0.774	0.420	0.443	0.446	0.458	0.423	0.056	0.453	0.402	0.34	0.433



Table 4 7 Continued

	DImage	InfoFam	ExpFam	ObjAut	ExisAut	TTInt	TLInt	Joy	Love	PSurp	UnPle	Satisfaction	AttLoy	BehLoy	ExpLoy
ExisAut7	0.420	0.42	0.397	0.407	<b>0.762</b>	0.502	0.472	0.529	0.498	0.484	0.058	0.528	0.453	0.404	0.40
TT_Int	0.465	0.386	0.45	0.40	0.537	0.807	0.47	0.590	0.497	0.487	0.26	0.524	0.469	0.458	0.346
TT_Int2	0.444	0.32	0.426	0.36	0.435	<b>0.764</b>	0.401	0.500	0.395	0.395	0.05	0.504	0.394	0.479	0.33
TT_Int3	0.508	0.370	0.395	0.45	0.498	<b>0.796</b>	0.390	0.542	0.482	0.50	0.044	0.550	0.506	0.57	0.47
TT_Int4	0.348	0.327	0.273	0.260	0.42	<b>0.657</b>	0.42	0.406	0.465	0.407	0.093	0.453	0.423	0.348	0.379
TL_Int	0.38	0.37	0.336	0.363	0.470	0.4	<b>0.817</b>	0.377	0.429	0.396	0.079	0.442	0.38	0.418	0.369
TL_Int2	0.429	0.428	0.325	0.405	0.483	0.498	<b>0.899</b>	0.474	0.500	0.468	0.097	0.53	0.45	0.466	0.462
TL_Int3	0.4	0.416	0.330	0.357	0.482	0.498	<b>0.839</b>	0.502	0.516	0.449	0.05	0.494	0.485	0.443	0.42
Joy	0.469	0.349	0.422	0.448	0.516	0.576	0.467	<b>0.824</b>	0.537	0.583	0.06	0.59	0.482	0.496	0.324
Joy2	0.45	0.383	0.402	0.433	0.486	0.529	0.47	<b>0.796</b>	0.507	0.552	0.044	0.562	0.456	0.482	0.293
Joy3	0.449	0.376	0.413	0.445	0.483	0.538	0.419	<b>0.833</b>	0.537	0.557	0.030	0.608	0.506	0.529	0.363
Joy4	0.443	0.380	0.4	0.432	0.530	0.513	0.393	<b>0.765</b>	0.516	0.500	0.043	0.580	0.525	0.483	0.399
Joy5	0.428	0.336	0.377	0.39	0.504	0.484	0.376	<b>0.682</b>	0.525	0.485	0.077	0.527	0.477	0.435	0.382
Love	0.439	0.360	0.366	0.366	0.489	0.488	0.386	0.530	<b>0.707</b>	0.484	0.043	0.53	0.470	0.379	0.336
Love2	0.36	0.348	0.33	0.303	0.458	0.468	0.425	0.468	<b>0.748</b>	0.427	0.057	0.49	0.42	0.359	0.338
Love3	0.430	0.374	0.357	0.332	0.422	0.459	0.438	0.465	<b>0.777</b>	0.474	0.083	0.502	0.44	0.427	0.349
Love4	0.420	0.39	0.353	0.36	0.467	0.45	0.433	0.509	<b>0.784</b>	0.502	0.076	0.540	0.504	0.453	0.435
Love5	0.373	0.364	0.328	0.339	0.499	0.422	0.448	0.548	<b>0.747</b>	0.566	0.2	0.502	0.494	0.413	0.394
PSurp	0.343	0.37	0.287	0.316	0.463	0.409	0.428	0.50	0.586	<b>0.627</b>	0.135	0.508	0.477	0.389	0.423
PSurp2	0.475	0.286	0.376	0.478	0.42	0.444	0.359	0.549	0.464	<b>0.752</b>	-0.179	0.508	0.414	0.505	0.336
PSurp3	0.45	0.355	0.336	0.446	0.379	0.413	0.386	0.445	0.397	<b>0.719</b>	-0.085	0.455	0.39	0.457	0.337
PSurp4	0.419	0.32	0.366	0.32	0.386	0.430	0.319	0.476	0.423	<b>0.769</b>	0.110	0.45	0.43	0.370	0.299
PSurp5	0.353	0.303	0.285	0.199	0.47	0.47	0.347	0.466	0.457	<b>0.710</b>	0.84	0.458	0.4	0.379	0.226
UnPle	-0.076	-0.021	0.013	-0.079	0.052	0.0	0.062	0.076	0.065	0.048	0.806	0.029	0.063	-0.039	0.042

Table 4.7 Continued

	DImage	InfoFam	ExpFam	ObjAut	ExisAut	TTInt	TLInt	Joy	Love	PSurp	UnPle	Satisfaction	AttLoy	BehLoy	ExpLoy
UnPle2	-0. 8	-0.006	0.026	-0. 07	0.054	0.048	0. 05	0.043	0.079	0.019	<b>0.861</b>	-0.025	0.023	-0.073	-0.002
UnPle3	-0. 07	0.009	0.0 0	-0.075	0.035	0.033	0.092	0.039	0.090	0.019	<b>0.846</b>	0.0 2	0.004	-0.078	0.042
UnPle4	-0. 0	0.056	0.0 4	-0.08	0.073	0. 05	0. 1	0.056	0.099	0.06	<b>0.854</b>	0.064	0.0 7	-0.043	0.05
Satisfaction	0.522	0.365	0.349	0.525	0.485	0.496	0.448	0.552	0.497	0.484	-0.068	<b>0.718</b>	0.486	0.563	0.366
Satisfaction2	0.5	0.383	0.323	0.4 1	0.460	0.443	0.4 0	0.5	0.484	0.456	-0.052	<b>0.720</b>	0.482	0.5 4	0.377
Satisfaction3	0.445	0.359	0.363	0.399	0.464	0.502	0.419	0.558	0.478	0.479	-0.026	<b>0.770</b>	0.478	0.456	0.404
Satisfaction4	0.366	0.364	0.395	0.344	0.459	0.484	0.402	0.526	0.489	0.493	0 03	<b>0.747</b>	0.483	0.456	0.374
Satisfaction5	0.454	0.353	0.365	0.384	0.470	0.509	0.449	0.533	0.48	0.504	0.036	<b>0.766</b>	0.530	0.505	0.383
Satisfaction6	0.336	0.294	0.305	0.296	0.423	0.475	0.363	0.478	0.444	0.456	0. 4	<b>0.637</b>	0.396	0.464	0.323
Satisfaction7	0.464	0.349	0.348	0.367	0.504	0.478	0.408	0.545	0.543	0.493	0.054	<b>0.687</b>	0.550	0.540	0.397
AttLoy	0.432	0.350	0.322	0.328	0.425	0.455	0.325	0.455	0.430	0.458	0.006	0.495	<b>0.721</b>	0.493	0.472
AttLoy2	0.382	0.360	0.319	0.295	0.443	0.395	0.38	0.453	0.450	0.443	0.060	0.52	<b>0.749</b>	0.475	0.409
AttLoy3	0.40	0.37	0.300	0.359	0.428	0.436	0.364	0.478	0.473	0.437	0.035	0.500	<b>0.788</b>	0.5 0	0.40
AttLoy4	0.408	0.425	0.324	0.367	0.445	0.470	0.425	0.480	0.495	0.457	0.033	0.5 7	<b>0.773</b>	0.520	0.405
AttLoy5	0.427	0.380	0.327	0.400	0.42	0.469	0.444	0.484	0.476	0.426	-0.008	0.513	<b>0.730</b>	0.522	0.569
BehLoy	0.5 0	0.377	0.386	0.470	0.45	0.507	0.424	0.549	0.447	0.473	-0.039	0.6 2	0.524	<b>0.775</b>	0.338
BehLoy2	0.397	0.367	0.338	0.367	0.423	0.370	0.393	0.382	0.377	0.394	0.0	0.49	0.446	<b>0.703</b>	0.304
BehLoy3	0.503	0.400	0.342	0.492	0.409	0.464	0.399	0.484	0.4 0	0.47	-0 15	0.526	0.5 4	<b>0.814</b>	0.357
BehLoy4	0.482	0.404	0.364	0.465	0.37	0.422	0.357	0.436	0.384	0.399	-0. 16	0.496	0.504	<b>0.778</b>	0.35
BehLoy5	0.387	0.347	0.29	0.346	0.419	0.469	0.375	0.468	0.406	0.46	0.019	0.473	0.519	<b>0.669</b>	0.4
ExpLoy	0.460	0.413	0.328	0.358	0.430	0.445	0.448	0.436	0.447	0.416	0.03	0.480	0.562	<b>0.462</b>	<b>0.901</b>
Ex Lo 2	0.460	0.370	0.302	0.315	0.428	0.4	0.4 4	0.355	0.428	0.390	0.043	0.441	0.500	0.367	<b>0.871</b>